THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For SEPTEMBER, 1802.

ART. I. *A Voyage up the Mediterranean*, in his Majesty's Ship the Swiftsure, one of the Squadron under the Command of Rear-Admiral Sir Horatio Nelson, K. B., now Viscount and Baron Nelson of the Nile, and Duke of Bronté in Sicily. With a Description of the Battle of the Nile on the 1st of August 1798, and a Detail of Events that occurred subsequent to the Battle in various Parts of the Mediterranean. By the Rev. Cooper Willyams, A. M.*, Chaplain of the Swiftsure, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 330, and 43 Plates. 6l. 16s. 6d. plain, 10l. 2s. coloured. Boards. White. 1802.

THE Mediterranean Sea, including its surrounding coasts, presents us with a rich and inexhaustible variety of the most interesting objects. Hence we obtain our religion, our elegant literature, and our knowlege of the fine arts: here we trace the several theatres on which the most renowned events of antient times have been transacted; and hither the modern historian, in recording the brilliant atchievements of the Navy and Army of Great Britain during the late war, must direct the attention of admiring posterity. This sea, washing Europe, Asia, and Africa, possesses a most varied as well as extensive line of coast; along which are displayed the choicest bounties of nature; and which, if peopled by men of wisdom, activity, and virtue, must become the most desirable parts of the globe. At present, however, the traveller observes with regret, among the various inhabitants of these countries, that, in consequence of miserable governments and ridiculous superstitions, the human character has been lamentably debased; and that those advantages, which Providence has bestowed, far from being improved, are wholly neglected. By comparing the present inhabitants of several of these districts with the accounts of their ancestors which history and

---

* Mr. W. published an account of the Campaign in the West Indies in 1794, under Sir John Jervis and Sir Charles Grey. See Rev. vol. xxv. page 421.

even the remains of antiquity proclaim, human nature appears here to have undergone a most melancholy deterioration. The state of society seems to have greatly altered for the worse; and in some places the very face of the creation has evidently sympathized in this change,—or, to speak more properly, has been affected by it. In spite, however, of the feelings and reflections of the humane and enlightened observer, he will always discover, in visiting the coasts of the Mediterranean, much to satisfy his curiosity, to reward his toil, and to improve his mind.

In the course of the voyage related in the volume before us, Mr. Willyams explores no new region and makes no discoveries: but he details the particulars of an expedition which reflects the highest honour on the Navy of his country; and, as he availed himself of every opportunity of visiting the different states on which his ship touched, and took sketches of every scene which he deemed worthy of notice, he has furnished for the public a very gratifying, amusing, and well embellished narrative. The ship of which he was Chaplain formed one of the squadron of Lord Nelson; he was present at the ever to be remembered Battle of the Nile, surveyed the coasts of Syria, was at Rhodes, on the coast of Natolia in Asia Minor, at Syracuse, Palermo, and Naples; travelled over Tuscany and a great part of Italy; and again embarking, his course was directed to the island of Minorca, the renowned rock of Gibraltar, and Lisbon. Thus his observations, though they do not embrace every shore of the Mediterranean, include a considerable portion of it.

The very nature of Mr. W.'s journal renders it somewhat desultory, and it generally refers to objects which have been often described; yet it is on the whole written with ease and interest; and the assurance of fidelity as well in the drawings as in the descriptions must stamp on it considerable value. *Quicquid Græcia mendax audet in historia* is a licence in which tourists have often indulged themselves; and, when composing their journals, in order to produce astonishment in the reader, they have not scrupled (as the seamen would say) to put truth *under the hatches:* but the author before us, as an upright divine and an honest sailor, disclaims such mean conduct, and keeps truth always *on deck.* He thus speaks of himself:

'Placed as he was in the midst of a battle as splendid and extraordinary as the page of history has ever recorded, an attendant of the chase which preceded it, and of many interesting occurrences and scenes which the shores of the Mediterranean exhibited for nearly two years after its termination, he daily minuted with his pen and pencil the observations and images which obtruded them-

selves upon him. The authenticity of such memorials, and the views of places and people, which the present as well as the past has rendered subjects of such warm curiosity and interest, may, as his friends flatter him, give a value to his simple diary, and the sketches, even if unskilful, of a self-taught artist. All know how soon the numberless minutiæ now vivid in the memories of the actors would yield to the pressure of more recent occupations, and fade away without a record: but these pages will furnish remembrances of their activity and glory, on which they may look back with pleasure; and where their posterity may hereafter be proud to point out their names.

'After what has been said, it will not be expected that the accounts of places here described should be loaded with the endless learning connected with them, on which many would find no difficulty to pour out the contents of libraries, and extend the work to bulky volumes. There seem indeed neither bounds nor use in such repetitions. But if there were, it was not the present author's purpose to expatiate beyond the occurrences which fell within his own experience; for the scanty aid which the very few books of a naval life supplied, would alone have precluded him from the attempt. Yet he has since endeavoured occasionally to vary and enliven his narrative by a few references to ancient events: this liberty, however, has been very sparingly exercised.

'Too many books of travels and voyages are ornamented by fictitious views, as well as embellished relations. The reader may be assured that the drawings from which the plates of this volume were copied are genuine, and that they were taken on the spot by the same hand, and at the same time, which wrote the journal. This agreement of time and place will, he trusts, ensure the accuracy and peculiarity of his work.'

Mr. W. has given a very clear and circumstantial description of the Battle of the Nile, with a general chart of the Mediterranean, on which are marked the different tracks of the two hostile fleets, and also a plan of the combat when they met. It would highly gratify us to transcribe this detail: but, as various accounts of this brilliant action have been already exhibited, we shall in its stead insert his reflections on the advantageous circumstances which, in point of time, rendered it as important for us as it was glorious:

'The victory obtained over this fleet at once destroyed all the pleasing dreams of future conquests in the East, which Buonaparté had hitherto indulged. Cut off from a possibility of receiving the promised reinforcements from France, by the annihilation of its fleet, he foresaw that the utmost he could now hope for, was to secure a safe situation for his army in the country where he was. The great change of opinion among his newly acquired subjects, occasioned by the event of this battle, which convinced them that their invaders were not invincible, made his situation sufficiently uneasy, without any other circumstances to render it more so; but of them too he had a sufficient share.

'Had the storm which damaged Rear-Admiral Nelson's ship, when first he came into the Mediterranean, continued longer than it did, he would in all probability have been disabled from further exertions at that time; by this gale the Toulon fleet was detained longer in port, which gave an opportunity to Commodore Troubridge to form a junction with the Admiral. At length the French fleet sailed from Toulon, and proceeded by Sardinia to Malta; but we made our course for Naples, and missed them. Had our squadron fallen in with the enemy previous to the capture of Malta, and had a battle been fought, though it had terminated in our favour, as, in all humility, we may suppose, the utmost that we could have done would have been to have captured several of their men of war, and dispersed the rest; but as we well know, in such an event, our own ships must have suffered much, the rest of the convoy with troops might have escaped, and proceeding to its destination, would have effected its purpose; in which case the natives of Egypt would have been ignorant of the naval defeat of their invaders, and would have had no hopes of future succour from us; and from the crippled state of our ships, without a port to go to for repairs, the French would have been enabled to pour in fresh supplies of men and ammunition, and the fertile banks of the Nile would, without opposition, have been completely subjugated by the power of the invader. The same may be said had the two fleets met, as was expected, on the 22d of June, when they crossed each other in the night. But now their fleet, which was to have secured to them a safe retreat in case of failure, or if success had crowned their efforts, was to have convoyed fresh supplies from the mother country, was annihilated, all hopes of retreat were cut off, all prospect of reinforcements was destroyed.'

Much has been said concerning the remarkable manner in which Lord Nelson and the French Fleet missed each other on their way to the coast of Egypt. Mr. Willyams states some particulars which explain this singular circumstance:

'On the 22d of June, at daylight in the morning, the Mutine spoke a Genoese brig from Malta, and received information from her, that the French had sailed from thence on the 18th instant with a fresh gale from the north-west.

'The Admiral now determined to sail for Alexandria; though uncertain what course the enemy had taken, he judged that to be their probable destination, and accordingly made the signal to bear up and steer south-east with all possible sail.

'Every mind now anxiously looked forward to the glorious conflict; but what would have been our feelings if we could then have foreseen that the French fleet was to pass us in the following night? Such, however, was the case, as we afterwards learned from consulting and comparing the journals of French officers made prisoners in and after the action. It appears almost incredible that a fleet consisting of near four hundred sail of various descriptions, should cross an adverse fleet of fourteen sail of the line, even in the darkest night, without some of them being discovered, yet so it was. We sailed

on

on in expectation that they had got the start of us by several days, and they shaped their course across our track, making a more northern tour by the island of Candia, wrapped in perfect security, and unconscious that any adverse fleet of force sufficient to alarm them was at that moment in those seas.'

The disappointment of our fleet, on first arriving at Alexandria, is well known; and the Admiral returned to Syracuse, to procure fresh provisions:

'During the time our fleet was in the Bay of Syracuse, Admiral Nelson was impatiently expecting some intelligence of the route of the enemy. From neutral vessels that occasionally entered the port he could gain no certain information: but a vague report reached him, that the enemy were not in the Adriatic, had not been seen in the Archipelago, and were certainly not gone to the westward. From hence he judged that Egypt must be their destination: and though it appeared extraordinary that in our voyage to Alexandria and back to Syracuse, we had neither seen or heard of them; yet, in his own mind, he was confident that Egypt was their object, and he once more determined to proceed thither.

'That we did pass by the French fleet in our former voyage to Alexandria, has been ascertained to have happened between the 22d and 23d of June. To account for this circumstance I shall observe, that the French steered their course for Candia, making an angular passage to Alexandria: we, on the contrary, made a direct push for that place; and though it happened at what is generally understood to be the narrow part of these seas, yet the distance of thirty-five leagues between Candia and the shores of Africa, affords ample room for two of the largest fleets to pass each other without observation. But when it is considered that by the inferiority of our numbers we were constrained to sail in a compact body, that we had no frigates to look out, and that the hazy atmosphere in this climate precluded a distant view, the surprise will vanish.

'That this circumstance should occur, will to a seaman appear not an extraordinary matter.

'The cause why, on our return *from* Alexandria, we missed them will be easily understood by referring to the chart, in which I have marked down the tracks of the hostile fleets. It will there be seen that we made a circuitous route northward at the time the French fleet bore down to Alexandria in a direct line from Candia. We have since been informed that on the evening of the 30th of June, the French appeared off the coast of Egypt, and early in the morning of the same day our fleet was seen from the towers of Alexandria. If we had remained only a few hours longer on the coast we must have fallen in with them previous to their landing. But Providence ordered it otherwise. And from subsequent events we have every reason to believe that our success has been more complete, and the final destruction of their vast armament been rendered more decisive than if our own sanguine wishes had taken effect.'

The events of war are sufficiently horrible, even when mitigated by the principles of honour and humanity: but when neither of these are exercised towards a prostrate foe, they are afflicting in the extreme. Mr. W. complains that the French were deficient in many instances, in this respect, towards their prisoners; and if the facts be as he relates them, they are open to the severest censure. Be this, however, as it may; our religion and our feelings call on us to reprobate, in the strongest terms, the wanton cruelty and murder which, as we learn from the subsequent account, were inflicted on a part of the crew of a French vessel by the Arabs. We know not that this anecdote has hitherto been laid before the public: but he who reads it must wish that we had kept possession of Egypt, if it had been only for the purpose of diffusing the principles of civilization among the wretched inhabitants of that part of the globe:

'The next day the Emerald made a signal for a sail bearing E. by S. We accordingly gave chace, and off the Tower of Arabs saw a cutter standing towards the shore; the Emerald fired several shot to bring her to, but she persisted, and at length ran aground a little to the west of the Tower of Marabou; our boats, and those of the Emerald, were sent to bring her off: the French, in the mean time, made good their landing; but a high surf soon destroyed the cutter. At this moment nothing was to be seen but barren uncultivated sands as far as the eye could reach; but in a short time we descried several Arabs advance, some on horseback, others on foot. The French now perceived their error, but it was too late; some of them indeed were so fortunate as to get on board our boats which pulled towards the shore in hopes of saving their unfortunate enemy, and a midshipman from the Emerald, with a noble spirit of humanity, threw himself into the water and swam through a high surf to the shore; having a rope in his hand, by which the French captain and four seamen were saved. From him we learned, that the cutter was called l'Anemone, of 4 guns and 60 men, Citizen Gardon commander; having on board General Carmin, and Captain Valette, aid de camp of General Bonaparté; also a courier with dispatches, and a party of soldiers; that the cutter sailed from Toulon on the 17th of July, and touched at Malta, from which place she had taken her departure six days. Perceiving there was no possibility of escape from us, the General ordered Captain Gardon to run the cutter ashore, who urged the dangers of a high surf, and the numerous hordes of wild Arabs that infested the coast. The General said he would cut his way through them to Alexandria, which was not more than two or three leagues off, the towers and minarets being plainly to be seen. No sooner had he landed, however, and perceived the Bedouins, who till this time were hid behind the sand-hills, but now began to shew themselves, than dismay and terror seized on all: nor could we behold their distress without commiseration, although they had

had so entirely brought it on themselves by refusing to surrender to us, and had fired on our boats when escape was no longer in their power. Our people approached the shore as near as the breakers would permit them, and were repeatedly hailed by the French to be taken on board; but only Captain Gardon and four men were brought off. We perceived that the officers and men suffered themselves to be stripped without resistance. Many were murdered in cold blood, and apparently without any cause; and among them the unfortunate General, and Aid de Camp, who, on their knees, entreated for mercy. An Arab, on horseback, unslung his carbine and drew the trigger, but the piece did not go off; he renewed the priming, and again presented at the General, but the shot killed the Aid de Camp, who was on his knees a little behind him; he then with a pistol fired at the General, who instantly fell. The courier also, who endeavoured to escape, was pursued and murdered. An Arab who got possession of his dispatches instantly rode away with them, and we have since learned, that they were afterwards recovered by the French for a sum of money.'

The English are universally allowed to fight with as much fairness as gallantry: but, as the enemy have accused us of departing from our general rule in the battle of the Nile, an anecdote which Mr. W. records ought not to be omitted:

'While on the Egyptian coast we had frequent communications with the enemy. At one time the Commander in Chief sent two officers to offer us a supply of vegetables; from our long cruize on this inhospitable coast, he concluded we must be in want of such refreshments; yet we had the ingratitude to think that his civility was only a cover for his curiosity; it was natural to suppose he wished to know the state we were in, and how we bore the privations attendant on such a long and unprofitable cruize. Being aware of this, all possible civilities were shown to the French officers; and that they might be the better able to judge of our abilities to continue on that station, they were conducted into the several parts of the ship, even to the lower decks. They could not conceal their surprise at the healthiness of our people, the cheerfulness that appeared on their countenances, and the regularity and good order that reigned throughout.

'In the course of conversation after dinner one of them remarked, that we had made use of unfair weapons during the late action, by which, probably, the Admiral's ship l'Orient was burnt; and that General Bonaparté had expressed great indignation at it. In proof of this assertion he stated, that, in the late gun-boat attacks, their camp had twice been on fire, occasioned by balls of unextinguishable matter which were fired from one of the English boats. Captain Hallowell instantly ordered the gunner to bring up some of those balls, and asked him from whence he had them. To the confusion of the accusers, he related that they were found on board of the Spartiate, one of the ships captured on the 1st of August.

'As these balls were distinguished by particular marks, though in other respects alike, the Captain ordered an experiment to be made in order to ascertain the nature of them.

'The next morning I accompanied Mr. Parr, the gunner, to the island; the first we tried proved to be a fire-ball, but of what materials composed, we could not ascertain. As it did not explode, which at first we apprehended, we rolled it into the sea, where it continued to burn under water; a black pitchy substance exuding from it till only an iron skeleton of a shell remained. The whole had been carefully crusted over with a substance that gave it the appearance of a perfect shell. On setting fire to the fuse of the other, which was differently marked, it burst into many pieces; though somewhat alarmed, fortunately none of us were hurt.'

Here the calumny recoils with tenfold disgrace on the calumniator.—Though Mr. Willyams appears to be fond of the sea, he takes every opportunity of getting on shore; and on all these occasions he makes a good use of his eyes, his pencil, and his pen. As one example of his land observations, we shall subjoin a part of his account of Rhodes:

'The city of Rhodes no longer presents that splendid appearance that it formerly did when under the dominion of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, though many of its buildings recall them to the traveller's recollection. Over one of the gates is still to be seen a stone shield with the Cross of the Order; and the buildings are of that kind we denominate Gothic, and discover many traces of their former beauty. The ridiculous display of artillery, which the Turks are fond of, evidently demonstrates their ignorance of its proper use: the castle that commands the entrance of their harbours is loaded with guns of every description, and even every small hole and window has some fire-arms sticking out of it, such as blunderbusses, trombones, muskets, and pistols. On a platform between the two gates are several Colossal pieces of ordnance, not on carriages, but resting on stones, or on the ground, so that no alteration can be made in their elevation or direction; from these are fired large balls of marble, made from the statues and other pieces of sculpture which formerly adorned the city. Within the walls is a building which still retains the appearance of a monastery; it is a quadrangle surrounded with cloisters, and is now converted into a guard-house and arsenal, where we saw large piles of marble bullets of various dimensions, from the size of a twelve-pounder, to that of an eighteen-inch shell. The folding-doors of this building are of oak, and highly ornamented with carved work of the same Gothic or Saracenic order which is to be seen in our ancient cathedrals. Near this place, in a wretched hovel, were crowded the officers and crew of a French frigate lately captured in the port. Our commiseration for the fate of these men, thus reduced to the most abject slavery, was strongly excited, and they experienced from us that compassion and assistance their wretched condition demanded, and we were enabled to afford them. We next went into the bazar, or market-place, where nothing

nothing but dirt and indolence seemed to reign; from thence we proceeded to the land-gates, and were surprised at the strength of the fortifications in that quarter, but we found them in a state of dilapidation which plainly discovered that the present possessors were not the founders.

'Crossing the bridge, we perceived a party of people in the fosse (which is now a dry lawn) amusing themselves with the athletic game of wrestling. A stout negro and a small white man were at this time the combatants. They were both stripped to the skin, having only leathern drawers on well saturated with oil, with which also their bodies were smeared. Although they exhibited very little skill in the exercise, yet the method of preparing themselves for it, brought to our recollection Virgil's description of the same pastime;

'Exercent patrias oleo labente palæstras
Nudati socii *:——— Æn. lib. iii. v. 281.

'In all probability the present inhabitants of this island derived the custom from the Romans, who were formerly masters of it and the neighbouring states.

'From thence we entered into an open place of great extent which is used as a burial ground. The multitude of small stone pillars, some of them surmounted with turbans, which denote them to be the tombs of men, and others plain, for those of the women, have a very striking appearance. Beyond this we entered on the suburbs, which rise on the side of a hill that entirely commands the city. The long narrow alleys surrounded with high walls, the houses having no windows visible, and the solemn silence that constantly reigns there, made us happy to emerge into the country, and there we had no great cause to admire the character of the present possessors of this once justly admired place, as cultivation is sadly neglected: indeed the only people who seem to have any activity or industry are the Greeks, and they are kept in such subjection that all spirit of commerce must be cramped, if not entirely smothered.'

The detail of operations during our attacks on Aboukir, in the month of October, affords many records of the cowardice of our Turkish allies; and an anecdote, which we shall now transcribe, represents them in still worse colours:

'Some of the Turkish gun-boats were now brought so near the battery as to use their muskets, and the business was beginning to grow very serious, when, from the dastardly conduct of the Turks in one of the boats, which threw some of the rest into confusion, the action was obliged to be discontinued. Captain Hallowell had directed Lieutenant Witts of the marines to anchor his gun-boat, which he was in the act of doing, and his seamen busy about the anchor, when the Turks, made desperate by their fears, rose upon our unarmed people, and with their sabres began to cut them down. Our sailors in the launch, as well as a Russian boat, seeing the situa-

'* Our youth their naked limbs besmear with oil,
And exercise the wrestler's noble toil.
Dryden's Trans. Æn. iii. l. 364.'

tion

tion of our men, some of whom had jumped overboard to avoid the strokes of the Turkish scymetars, immediately flew to their assistance, and first throwing in arms to them, were preparing to follow them, when fortunately Captain Hallowell, who perceived the confusion, boarded her, and soon put an end to the fray; the Turks being now as mean in their humility as before they were ferocious in their attack upon unarmed men. All this time the vessel was drifting towards the shore, but was fortunately put about before she grounded. An English seaman seeing one of his comrades cut down by a Turk, instantly attacked the Mussulman with a wooden handspike and beat out his brains: the commander of the gun-boat was also wounded.'

The author went in the Torride Gun-Brig to the mouth of the Nile, for fresh water; and he says:

'We did not come unattended to this business; no sooner did she sail from the fleet, than several of the Turkish armed vessels got under weigh, not daring to trust themselves so near a French post, without being protected by some British vessel. We went on board one of them, at the request of her commander, and found her to be a handsome vessel, mounting twelve guns, six and nine pounders. The Captain (who was from the island of Candia) informed us, that though under the command of the Grand Signor, the vessel was his own property. Being willing to entertain us in the best manner possible, he ordered supper instantly to be brought in: it consisted of boiled fish and cheese swimming in clear oil. As I had my cue, I fell to work with my fingers, and pinching a piece out, prevented our entertainer from doing it for me; and in a short time this curious dish was dispatched. He then, in defiance of the laws of Mahomet, set before us some excellent Candiote wine, of which he swallowed such large potions as plainly indicated his contempt for the ordinances of his prophet. That our entertainment might be complete, he resolved to treat us with a concert: a wretched ragged Greek made his appearance, bearing a little guitar with three strings, and another accompanied it with his voice; but the music (if it deserved the name) was so intolerably bad, that none but Turkish ears could be delighted with it, and we were glad to retreat from such a medley of discordant sounds. Our vessel having obtained her cargo of water, gave us an opportunity of doing so without giving offence. We accordingly got on board, and sailed for the squadron, and our Turkish convoy made haste to follow us.'

A curious trait of our *Neapolitan Friends*, also, is thus related, and affords matter for reflection:

'Soon after the arrival of Lord Nelson at Naples after the victory he had obtained over the French fleet off the Nile, his Sicilian Majesty formed a design of driving the French from the frontiers of his dominions, as well as from Rome itself. Accordingly having collected a large army, amounting, it is said, to a hundred thousand men, he made rapid marches, and soon came up with the French forces; but though he might now have surrounded them, he contented

contented himself with ordering them to evacuate his own territories and those of the Holy Pontiff. Accordingly they retreated till they reached Rome; where, fortifying themselves in the castle of St. Angelo, they resolved to defend themselves, and proceed no farther. From some unknown cause the king suddenly retreated with much expedition to Naples, and his late numerous army disappeared. This cause has been thus explained to me. His Majesty having embraced a plan of setting up the commissions in his army to sale, and many persons having bought their rank, though they were known to possess no property, it is believed that the French lost not the opportunity to furnish them with the money. The consequence is obvious. Of course they took good care not to act against their benefactors.'

We have heard much of the severities exercised by the Neapolitan Government on its disaffected subjects, after it had regained possession of its power; and particularly of the execution of the Admiral Carraccioli. On these subjects, Mr. Willyams's statements are not uninteresting:

'During the five weeks in which these events (the sieges of St. Elmo and Capua by the British) were carried on, Captain Hood had an arduous task to fulfil at Naples, where he commanded a body of seamen who had taken post in Castel Nuovo. The Calabrese, as well as Russians and Turks, had entertained hopes that Naples was to have been given up to plunder; and the Cardinal, through whose means they had been thus marched from the furthest extremity of the Neapolitan dominions, had no power to curb their lawless acts, which broke out in various excesses. Captain Hood, by his firm and prudent conduct, at length succeeded in restoring good order; and it was remarked that Naples (so lately torn by intestine broils and revolutionary fury) never, in the most peaceable times, enjoyed a greater degree of tranquillity than under his government.

'Previous to his taking this command, divers atrocious acts of cruelty, and murders attended with circumstances of the most savage nature, were perpetrated in the face of day. One of these, that I witnessed, will be sufficient to relate here in proof of this assertion. An unfortunate gentleman, suspected of being a jacobin or rebel, was dragged wounded out of the house he had been concealed in, and in an instant was stripped and cut to pieces; his mangled limbs were drawn about the streets, and his head roasted before a fire kindled in them for that purpose. Some of our officers who were passing by, and obliged to witness the last scene of horror, of course expressed their concern and disgust at it, to the no small astonishment of the mob.

'During these transactions his Majesty the King of Naples arrived in the Seahorse from Palermo. He first went to Procida, but the day following came on board the Foudroyant, bearing the flag of Rear-Admiral Lord Nelson; and his Majesty was received with a royal salute from the whole fleet.

'At this time several Neapolitan insurgents were tried, condemned, and executed; among the rest Admiral Carraccioli. He had

had formerly distinguished himself by his zeal and courage when he commanded a Neapolitan squadron, and fought under the command of a British admiral. This unfortunate man had retired with his Sovereign to Sicily; perceiving that no steps were likely to be taken by his court to oppose the new order of things at Naples, he requested and obtained leave to return thither for the purpose of securing, if possible, his large property in that quarter. His known courage and abilities then pointed him out, both to his countrymen and the French, as a proper man to head the marine whenever it should be formed; and he entered with zeal into the service. Perhaps he thought, as many others have thought, that the king's abdication of his throne, without making so strenuous an opposition as he might have done to the revolutionary system, and his quitting his capital several weeks before any enemy approached it, might plead his excuse for joining those who were now resolved to erect a new government, since they were abandoned by their old. Be that as it may, he was tried by a Neapolitan court-martial on board the Foudroyant, condemned, and executed the same day on board a Neapolitan frigate then lying off the Mole.'

The profession of Mr. Willyams in course excited in him a desire, when on the coast of Palestine, to visit the scene of our Saviour's ministry, and he attempted to reach Jerusalem: but the journey could not be safely accomplished. He was not idle, however, for he took several views in Syria; and the following description accompanies his sketches of and from the top of Mount Carmel:

'We hastened to enjoy a ramble into the adjacent country: proceeding out of the western gate, we turned to the left, and ascended the hill which rises immediately behind the town. At the distance of a quarter of a mile we arrived at a square castle, with only one small entrance, and quite unornamented by architectural embellishments. It appears to have been formed more for the purpose of overawing the town than of defending it. From thence we continued to ascend through a grove of olives till we arrived at a steep and rocky path, by which we, at length, reached the top of Mount Carmel.

'From this height we had a delightful view of the surrounding romantic country. Directly under us appeared the town of Caiffe; to the right extended a level plain of apparently rich land, watered by the rivers Belus and Kishon, and bounded by the mountains of Nazareth *.

'On

'* It was not possible to view this country without calling to mind the wonderful events that have occurred in it at various periods from the earliest times; more particularly, the sacred life and history of our Redeemer, pressed foremost on our minds. One thing struck me in the form of the houses in the town now under our view, which served to corroborate the account of former travellers in this country, explaining several passages of scripture, particularly the following.

In

'On the northern side of the Bay, on the sea-shore, is situated the city of St. Jean d'Acre; above which, among the mountains, we perceived a large castle, but could learn no account to whom it belonged; it had very much the appearance of those strong holds we read of in romances. Over these mountains, at the distance of twenty miles, the towering heights of Mount Lebanon raised their snowy heads. The summit of Carmel, though perfectly wild and uncultivated, had its peculiar beauties. Small grass-plots of the finest herbage were surrounded by flowering shrubs of various kinds; among which the arbutus and dwarf-oak bore a conspicuous character. The acorns of the latter feed the wild boars, which are numerous in this country. Of these animals we were fortunate enough to procure two, which, when brought on board, proved a delightful repast to men who had been at a short allowance of salt provisions for six weeks, and to our palates were preferable to the finest venison. Whether it was that circumstance or not, I cannot undertake to determine, but we certainly thought the flesh had much more the flavour of venison than of pork.

'But to return to Carmel: the western extremity extends towards the sea, where it terminates in an abrupt point, on which is a monastery of Carmelite monks, that takes its name from the mountain. This monastery is the parent stock of the religious houses bearing the same appellation in Europe. Beyond this point, the Mediterranean sea presented an expanse of water farther than the eye could reach. After enjoying the prospect which the scenery around us so amply afforded, we descended towards the eastern side of the town; near the base of the mountain we came to several caverns, which by the natives are called the Seven Caves; they appear to have been the foundations and undercrofts of spacious buildings, of which, except these hollows, not a vestige remains.'

While the author was on the coast of Naples, he ascended Vesuvius, and visited the excavations of Pompeii and other

---

In Matth. ch. xxiv. v. 17, our blessed Saviour in describing the distresses which shortly would overwhelm the land of Judea, tells his disciples, that "when the abomination of desolation is seen standing in the holy place, let him (says he) which is on the house top not come down to take any thing out of his house, but fly," &c. The houses, in this country, are all flat roofed and communicate with each other; a person there might proceed to the city walls and escape into the country without coming down into the street. Though I am aware that it may be objected that this and most of the places now existing are of a much later date than the times when this prophecy was pronounced; yet as the dress and appearance of these people have suffered little change, so, in all probability, the general form of the buildings has been transmitted, and, though meanly, copied.'

Mr. Harmer, in his observations on Scripture, endeavours to illustrate this text by referring to the Eastern custom of the stair-case being on the outside of the House: but Mr. Willyams's representation seems to afford a more complete elucidation of the passage. *Rev.*

curiosities in that neighbourhood. In his rambles through Italy, he reached the convent of Vallombrosa; and, as a justification of Milton's simile, he gives a drawing of this truly umbrageous region,

" Where th' Etrurian shades
High over-arch'd embow'r." - - - -

We cannot, however, follow him in his rapid journeys to Florence, to Venice, to Mantua, &c. &c.: but, after having seen him safely on board again, we must accompany him to the island of Minorca, and make an extract from his sketch of it:

' The roads in Minorca are rough and stony: the whole island indeed presents a barren prospect of rocks, covered in some places with a thin soil, which, by the industry of the inhabitants, produces tolerable corn. The gullies, or small valleys, where the soil is deeper, by the frequent accumulations washed into them by torrents of rain, are fertile, and bear excellent vegetables. They are also planted with fig-trees and vines.

' The harbour of Mahon is perhaps the best in the world, being capable of holding a great number of ships, and having depth of water for the largest man of war to ride in perfect safety. It is landlocked on all sides with numerous coves, in which the merchantmen are brought close to the shore, while the rocky crags rising perpendicularly from the water's edge, are high enough to shelter them from the heaviest gales. In the centre of the harbour, on an elevated island, is the naval hospital, admirably calculated for the health and convenience of the invalids.'—

' The common mode of conveyance in Minorca is on mules and asses, though there are also many horses kept; but the former are generally more surefooted on the rocky roads. The ass, here called Boreco, is of a large kind, and rendered by good keep and care in its management very tractable, and is a much handsomer animal than those of England. The mule of Minorca is also very handsome, and often is found of an extraordinary size; I have seen a grey one that measured full sixteen hands high. The Honourable Colonel Paget of the 28th regiment had one of peculiar elegance in shape and colour, and of remarkable activity, but not of the largest size. There are plenty of partridges on the island, which afforded good sport to our officers. The heat during the summer is very oppressive, and frequently proves fatal to new comers. The troops lately encamped under the command of Brigadier-General Stuart, had lost many men by sickness. In the autumn and winter, the sudden transition from extreme heat to sharp cold weather is very prejudicial to Englishmen, who seldom take those precautions that almost all foreigners do, to vary their dress accordingly. The habit of the Minorquin women is very remarkable, and differs more from modern Europeans than any I had seen. At first landing I mistook the women for nuns of the mendicant order. They are long waisted, and wear a piece of muslin, and sometimes black crape, under their chins, which, rising up on each side of the face, joins a handkerchief drawn tight across the forehead; over this they have a large piece of muslin, which

which extends from the top of the head downwards like a cloak. Some of them wear red mantles lappelled, and joined at the back with yellow ribbands; below this, their hair, which is tied close to the head, is suffered to hang loose in form and quantity like a horse's tail.

'Their petticoats reach but a little below the knee, of course they are remarkably attentive to the decorations of their legs and feet, which are universally, from the highest to the lowest, clothed in clean white stockings and neat round-toed shoes. The Minorquin ladies, it is said, wish much to adopt the more elegant dress of the English, but either from some jealous fancy, or a regard to the ancient costumé of their country, the men will not permit it. The men, indeed, have accommodated themselves to the more modern fashions, and have nothing very particular in their appearance, except the priests, whose immense flapped beavers overshadow them like an umbrella.

'An annexed drawing thus represents the mode of making butter in this country: The dairy woman is standing under a shed, and holding by two pegs in the wall to steady herself, while with one foot naked she stamps in a tub of cream till it becomes butter.'

Hence Mr. W. passed to Gibraltar and Lisbon; and returning to the former place on board the Kent, he took his passage in the Anson for England.

As an Appendix, the subsequent misfortune of the Swiftsure, in being captured by Admiral Gantheaume's squadron, is related; and here the author is able to record one instance, at least, of the good behaviour of the French towards their prisoners; for he speaks in high terms of the humanity and courage of that French officer.

Mr. Willyams submits his book with diffidence to the public eye: conscious (as he says) that his habits and pursuits have not qualified him for the claims of literary merit: but we see not this deficiency; and the work bears many marks of its author's remembrance of the classical studies of his younger days. Each chapter is introduced either with a Latin or Italian motto; which, for the benefit of his unlearned readers, he has translated in the table of contents.—Where so much amusement has been afforded us, it might be considered as ungrateful to point out little negligences of style; such, however, we have noticed in perusal; and we hope that, in a subsequent edition, they will be corrected *. Mr. W.'s sentiments

* At p. 48. we observe an inaccuracy of statement, in respect to names. Speaking of Sir James Saumarez's capture of a French frigate, at the commencement of the war, instead of *the Circe* (as the captor) we should read *the Crescent*, and instead of *the Crescent* (as the captured) we should read *La Re-union*.

are truly loyal and patriotic; and his narrative will be perused by all true Englishmen with great satisfaction.

In addition to the letter-press, this volume contains a General Chart of the Mediterranean, and numerous acquatinta views of various scenes and occurrences, which were all taken on the spot by Mr. Willyams. They reflect much credit on his talents, and will be highly acceptable to his readers.

ART. II. *General Zoology;* or, Systematic Natural History. By George Shaw, M. D. F. R. S &c.; with Plates from the first Authorities and most select Specimens. Engraved principally by Mr. Heath. Vols. I. II. and III. in two Parts each. 8vo. ~~5l. 8s.~~ Boards. (Large Paper, ~~9 Guineas~~.) Kearsley. 1800—1802.

FROM the modest advertisement and introduction prefixed to this publication, we learn that the author's design is to sketch a system of Zoology, principally founded on the Linnéan arrangement, with such occasional corrections and enlargements as the progressive state of natural history may be expected to supply. In a similar walk, the late Comte de Buffon, and our countryman Mr. Pennant, gathered ample laurels: but neither of them exhibited a display of the whole department of animated nature. While the French orator blended his eloquent reveries with the language of science, affected to depreciate distinctive characters, and betrayed a facility of belief and a licence of fancy unworthy of a philosopher, the British systematist was not always sufficiently careful to enliven his more solid page with those traits of habit and manner, which must ultimately constitute the charm of zoological writing. A work, then, was still wanting, which should delineate, in a methodical yet popular form, the history of those numerous tribes of beings which share the physical destinies of man, and have proceeded from the same grand source of creative power and goodness. Fortunately for the public, this task has devolved on a gentleman whose talents and opportunities eminently qualify him for discharging it with fidelity and reputation. The high expectations with which we sat down to his book have not been disappointed; and we are enabled to commend equally the propriety of the plan, and the diligence of the execution.

The first and second volumes, each consisting of two parts, comprize the *Mammalia*, or viviparous quadrupeds. Dr. Shaw's plan is to exhibit the genuine and specific characters, a list of synonyms, and a particular account of each species. The references, as far as we have had leisure to collate them, are laudably accurate; and we have not detected a single *wanton* deviation

deviation from the language or classification of the Swedish naturalist. The author observes that,

'With respect to figures, those highly important accompaniments to a work of this kind, no care has been spared to give such as convey the clearest and most accurate ideas of the animals themselves. Where Buffon's figures were judged unexceptionable, they have been admitted: others are introduced from publications of the first respectability, from original drawings, or from those rich repositories of science, the British and Leverian Museums.

'The talents of the engraver, to whose care they have been committed, are too well known to require particular commendation.

'The remaining volumes will be published in regular order, and with as much dispatch as is consistent with the accuracy required in a systematic work on Natural History.'

Accuracy of painting and perspicuity of expression distinguish the present descriptions from those of many of the author's predecessors. The candour, judgment, and discrimination with which he has selected his materials,—the diffidence with which he records doubtful allegations,—the temper with which he prosecutes his inquiries, removed alike from scepticism and credulity,—his apparent freedom from preconceived opinions,—his uniform and respectful intimations of the sources whence he derives his materials,—and the singular felicity with which he has adapted the tenor of his writing to the disciple of Linné and the common reader,—all intitle him to very ~~singular~~ distinguished praise.

A preliminary dissertation, on the principles of animal physiology, would form no unsuitable introduction to a system of zoology; yet, since all general truths result from extended inductions, and receive their illustrations from particular examples, the abstract discussion arising out of a complex subject may, with more propriety, be reserved for the conclusion.

The extensive genus *Simia*, distributed into *apes*, *baboons*, *monkeys*, and *sapajous*, is delineated with due discrimination, yet without prolixity. Vosmaer's very entertaining account of the Oran Otan has been introduced with judgment and effect. Should the fastidious reader surmise that the notices of its congeners are few and meager, the answer, though not the most consoling in the world, is nevertheless true—namely, that the same objection must attach to many recitals of exotic animals, because thousands have traversed sea and land in pursuit of wealth or conquest, for one whose wanderings have been prompted by the love of knowlege; and the domestic student of nature is often condemned to have recourse to lame or exaggerated narratives, to the shadows of animals pining in con-

finement, and to the shrunk and mutilated specimens of a cabinet.—With respect to *Simia* and other genera, Dr. Shaw honestly remarks that the species are often so nearly allied, that it is extremely difficult to assign characters really distinct. Artificial arrangements are, in fact, necessary to aid the memory and facilitate our researches: but Nature not unfrequently makes sport of our lines of demarcation, and, blending her varieties by insensible shades, retires like a coy maid from the prying eye of the nomenclator. The Doctor observes with great justness, in another place, that short specific characters, though highly useful, are not always worthy of dependance: but that most of those which were composed by Linné are remarkable for their truth and exactitude.

To the lovers of strict method, the *Lemur* genus likewise presents doubts and difficulties, which are here resolved as far as authentic documents will permit.—Sir William Jones's minutes of the *Tardigradus* (which ought no longer to be confounded with the *Loris*) will naturally arrest the attention of every reader of taste and sensibility.—Geoffroy's proposed new arrangement of the Lemurs is here annexed to the descriptions, and dismissed with the following brief but judicious comment:

'From the above distribution, it should seem that Mons. Geoffroy has considered some animals of this genus as distinct species, which are, perhaps, rather varieties. It may also be added, that if this exact observation of the teeth were attended to, the genus Vespertilio might with equal propriety be distributed into several distinct genera; but it may be doubted whether the study of Natural History would be facilitated by such an arrangement.'

To those who have not perused Pallas's memoir on the flying *Colugo*, that article, as reduced in the present work, must prove highly acceptable.

Some valuable remarks on the history of the *Bat* are quoted from the late ingenious Mr. White of Selborne. Our attention is also drawn to the curious fact discovered by the Abbé Spallanzani, that blinded Bats avoid striking against objects in their flight. Without having recourse to the Abbé's *additional sense*, or to Mr. Carlisle's hypothesis of exquisite *hearing*, may we not suggest a peculiar delicacy of *feeling*, or irritability of the nervous system, which may be awake to every modification of change in the surrounding air, that depends on the presence or absence of intervening objects? At all events, the fact being ascertained, we perfectly agree with Dr. Shaw that no more poor Bats should be tortured:—let naturalists torture themselves about the cause as much as they please.—Little new light is thrown on the subject of the Vampyre Bat; while, perhaps, several of the species are treated too much in the laconic

comic style of a descriptive catalogue. Respecting the term *Vampyre*, we have a curious anecdote:

'A Vampyre is an imaginary monster, supposed to suck the blood of sleeping persons. It also alludes to one of the most absurd superstitions that ever entered into the human mind. About the year 1732 an idea arose among the vulgar in some parts of Poland and Hungary, that certain bodies when interred, became possessed of the power of absorbing blood from those who were so unfortunate as to pass over or stand near their graves; it was, therefore, supposed necessary to disinter such bodies and wound them with a sword, by which means this pernicious power was supposed to be put a stop to, and the blood they had unjustly gained was evacuated. Astonishing as this folly may appear, it is yet more astonishing that a great many treatises were written on the subject, and that some considerable time elapsed before the superstition was completely destroyed.'

We find the order *Bruta* slowly ushered in by the *Bradypus*. After every abatement has been made, on the score of fable, this genus evidently possesses an inherent right to its family-designation. Dissections of the *Didactylus*, *Tridactylus*, and of the *Lemur Loris*, confirm Mr. Carlisle's ingenious idea, that the extreme tardiness of their pace results from a particular distribution of the arterial system of the limbs.—Dr. Shaw very properly glances, though with lenient reprehension, at the impious insinuation of Buffon that animals may have been created for misery.

We regard as a valuable and curious addition to this volume, Cuvier's description of the fossil skeleton of an unknown animal, which he designates *Megatherium Americanum*. Examples of a similar nature, mentioned in the sequel, seem to prove that races of animals have become extinct; and we believe that the remark may be extended to the vegetable world.

The *Myrmecophagæ*, or ant-eaters, a toothless tribe, subsisting on insects, and especially ants, which they draw into their mouths by their long worm-like tongues, next pass in review. Of the species, which are not numerous, the aculeated is the most singular, and is thus described:

'ACULEATED ANT-EATER.

'Myrmecophaga Aculeata. *M. aculeata, cauda brevissima. Vivarium Naturæ, tab.* 109.
Spiny Ant-Eater, with very short tail.
Porcupine Ant-Eater. *Naturalist's Miscellany, pl.* 109.
Aculeated Ant-Eater. *Pennant Quadr.* 2. *p.* 262.

'The Aculeated Ant-Eater is one of those curious animals which have been lately discovered in the vast island, or rather continent, of Australasia or New Holland; and is a striking instance of that

beautiful gradation, so frequently observed in the animal kingdom, by which creatures of one tribe or genus approach to those of a very different one. It forms a connecting link between the very distant Linnæan genera of Hystrix (Porcupine) and Myrmecophaga (Ant-Eater), having the external coating and general appearance of the one, with the mouth and peculiar generic characters of the other. This animal, so far as may be judged from the specimens hitherto imported, is about a foot in length. The whole upper parts of the body and tail are thickly coated with strong and very sharp spines, of a considerable length, and perfectly resembling those of a Porcupine, except that they are thicker in proportion to their length; and that, instead of being encircled or annulated with several alternate rings of black and white, as in that animal, they are mostly of a yellowish white with black tips; the colour running down to some little distance on the quill, and being separated from the white part by a circle of dull orange: others have but a very slight appearance of black towards the tips. The head, legs, and whole under-parts of the body, are of a deep brown, or sable, and are thickly coated with strong, close-set, bristly hair. The tail is extremely short, slightly flattened at the tip, and coated on the upper part of the base with spines, at least equal in length to those of the back, and pointing perpendicularly upwards. The snout is long and tubular, and perfectly resembles in structure that of the M. Jubata, or Great Ant-Eater; having only a very small rictus or opening at the tip, from whence is protruded a long lumbrici-form tongue, as in other Ant-Eaters. The nostrils are small, and seated at the extremity of the snout. The eyes are very small and black, with a pale blue iris. The legs are very short and thick; and are each furnished with five rounded, broad toes: on the fore feet are five very strong, long, and blunt claws, of a black colour: on the hind feet are only four claws; the thumb, which is broader than the rest of the toes, being destitute of a claw: the first claw on the hind feet is extremely long, somewhat curved, and sharp-pointed; the next rather shorter, but of similar appearance; the two remaining ones far shorter, very slightly curved, and not sharp-pointed. In its mode of life this animal resembles the rest of the Ant-Eaters, being generally found in the midst of some large ant-hill: it burrows with great strength and celerity under ground, when disturbed; its feet and legs being most excessively strong, and short, and wonderfully adapted to this purpose. It will even burrow under a pretty strong pavement, removing the stones with its claws; or under the bottom of a wall. During these exertions its body is stretched or lengthened to an uncommon degree, and appears very different from the short or plump aspect which it bears in its undisturbed state.

'It cannot escape the observation of every scientific naturalist, that, in consequence of the discovery of this curious animal, the Linnæan character of Myrmecophaga is, in part, rendered inapplicable. Since, therefore, the genera of *Manis* and *Myrmecophaga* differ only in the external covering, the former being coated with scales, and the latter with hair, it would, perhaps, be not improper to conjoin the two genera, to add this as a new species, and to give as part of

the generic character, *Corpus pilis, squamis, vel aculeis tectum.* Or it might even constitute a new genus, which would differ from those of Manis and Myrmecophaga, in having the body covered with spines.'

The *Manis* and *Armadillo* offer little to detain attention: but Mr. Bruce's account of the two-horned Rhinoceros, and Mr. Bell's description of that of Sumatra, are well deserving of notice.

We are likewise presented with the substance of Mr. Corse's recent communications concerning the Elephant, extracted from the Philosophical Transactions. Of that animal's intellectual and *moral* endowments, we looked for other anecdotes than the well-known adventure of the taylor of Delli:—but the following very extraordinary particulars, related of the next genus, more than compensated for our disappointment.

'PLATYPUS.

'*Generic Character.*

'*Os* anatinum.	*Mouth* shaped like the bill of a duck.
Pedes palmati.	*Feet* webbed.

'Of this most extraordinary genus, the first description appeared in the Naturalist's Miscellany; but as the individual there described was the only one which had been seen, it was impossible not to entertain some distant doubts as to the genuine nature of the animal, and to surmise, that, though in apperance perfectly natural, there might still have been practised some arts of deception in its structure. I, therefore, hesitated as to admitting it into the present History of Quadrupeds. Two more specimens, however, having been very lately sent over from New Holland, by Governor Hunter, to Sir Joseph Banks, the suspicions before mentioned are now completely dissipated. I shall, therefore, here repeat my first description in the work above mentioned, and have only to observe, that the genus should be placed, as there proposed, next to that of *Myrmecophaga*, in the present order of *Bruta*.

'Platypus Anatinus. *Vivarium Naturæ, tab* 385:
The Duck-billed Platypus. *Naturalist's Miscellany, pl.* 385.

'The animal exhibited on the present plate constitutes a new and singular genus, which, in the Linnæan arrangement of quadrupeds, should be placed in the order *Bruta*, and should stand next to the genus Myrmecophaga.

'Of all the Mammalia yet known it seems the most extraordinary in its conformation; exhibiting the perfect resemblance of the beak of a Duck engrafted on the head of a quadruped. So accurate is the similitude, that, at first view, it naturally excites the idea of some deceptive preparation by artificial means; the very epidermis, proportion, serratures, manner of opening, and other particulars of the beak of a shoveler, or other broad-billed species of duck, presenting themselves to the view: nor is it without the most minute and rigid

examination that we can persuade ourselves of its being the real beak or snout of a quadruped.

'The body is depressed, and has some resemblance to that of an Otter in miniature: it is covered with a very thick, soft, and beaver-like fur, and is of a moderately dark brown above, and of a subferruginous white beneath. The head is flattish, and rather small than large: the mouth or snout, as before observed, so exactly resembles that of some broad-billed species of duck that it might be mistaken for such: round the base is a flat, circular membrane, somewhat deeper or wider below than above, viz. below near the fifth of an inch, and above about an eighth. The tail is flat, furry like the body, rather short, and obtuse, with an almost bifid termination: it is broader at the base, and gradually lessens to the tip, and is about three inches in length: its colour is similar to that of the body. The length of the whole animal from the tip of the beak to that of the tail is thirteen inches: of the beak an inch and half. The legs are very short, terminating in a broad web, which on the fore feet extends to a considerable distance beyond the claws; but on the hind feet reaches no farther than the roots of the claws. On the fore feet are five claws, straight, strong, and sharp pointed: the two exterior ones somewhat shorter than the three middle ones. On the hind feet are six claws, longer and more inclining to a curved form than those on the fore feet; the exterior toe and claw are considerably shorter than the four middle ones: the interior or sixth is seated much higher up than the rest, and resembles a strong, sharp spur. All the legs are hairy above: the fore feet are naked both above and below; but the hind feet are hairy above, and naked below. The internal edges of the under mandible (which is narrower than the upper) are serrated or channeled with numerous striæ, as in a duck's bill. The nostrils are small and round, and are situated about a quarter of an inch from the tip of the bill, and are about the eighth of an inch distant from each other. There is no appearance of teeth: the palate is removed, but seems to have resembled that of a duck: the tongue also is wanting in the specimen. The ears, or auditory foramina, are placed about an inch beyond the eyes: they appear like a pair of oval holes of the eighth of an inch in diameter; there being no external ear. On the upper part of the head, on each side, a little beyond the beak, are situated two smallish oval white spots; in the lower part of each of which are imbedded the eyes, or at least the parts allotted to the animal for some kind of vision; for from the thickness of the fur and the smallness of the organs they seem to have been but obscurely calculated for distinct vision, and are probably like those of Moles, and some other animals of that tribe; or perhaps even subcutaneous; the whole apparent diameter of the cavity in which they were placed not exceeding the tenth of an inch.

'When we consider the general form of this animal, and particularly its bill and webbed feet, we shall readily perceive that it must be a resident in watery situations; that it has the habits of digging or burrowing in the banks of rivers, or under ground; and that its food consists of aquatic plants and animals. This is all that can at present be reasonably guessed at: future observations, made in its native

native regions, will, it is hoped, afford us more ample information, and will make us fully acquainted with the natural history of an animal which differs so widely from all other quadrupeds, and which verifies in a most striking manner the observation of Buffon, viz. that whatever was possible for Nature to produce, has actually been produced.

'On a subject so extraordinary as the present, a degree of scepticism is not only pardonable, but laudable; and I ought perhaps to acknowledge that I almost doubt the testimony of my own eyes with respect to the structure of this animal's beak; yet must confess that I can perceive no appearance of any deceptive preparation; and the edges of the rictus, the insertion, &c. when tried by the test of maceration in water, so as to render every part completely moveable, seem perfectly natural; nor can the most accurate examination of expert anatomists discover any deception in this particular.

'The Platypus is a native of Australasia or New Holland.'

In perusing the history of the *Trichechus* or *Walrus* tribe, we are pleased to find warmth of affection subsisting among those shapeless monsters of the deep, amid the cold and horrors of the polar regions.

Part II. of Vol. I. commences with the *Feræ*. As the history of many of this and of the succeeding orders of *Mammalia* must be familiar to many persons, we shall notice this part of the system but slightly, and leave room for a more particular examination of the amphibious class.

Should the reader find the article *Dog* less extended and interesting than his expectation had anticipated, he will probably deem the author's apology satisfactory:

'Besides the varieties of dogs enumerated, there are many others arising from the mixture of breeds: but it would be tedious as well as useless, to particularize with scrupulous minuteness all the differences of this varying race. The principal varieties are well figured in the Count de Buffon's Natural History, and are copied into Mr. Smellie's translation of that elegant work. In the present publication, solicitous to introduce figures of the rarer animals, rather than of such as are well known, we have admitted only the Shepherd's Dog, the Dingo or Australasian Dog, and the Irish Greyhound, as elucidations of the species.'

Of the *Wolf*, we are told that, when reduced to extremity by hunger, he swallows great quantities of mud, to allay the uneasy sensation of his stomach.—May he not claim kindred with the New Caledonians?

Dr. Shaw, who does not rashly adopt extravagant opinions, inclines to favour Professor Guldenstadt's hypothesis on the origin of the dog:

'The more we consider,' says he, 'the nature and manners of this animal, the more reason we shall find to coincide with Professor Gul-

denstadt in opinion, that the Jackal is the real origin of the Dog; (unless, indeed, we allow the wild dogs of Africa, mentioned under the history of that species, to be the Dog in a state of nature.) Mr. Guldenstadt very properly observes, that the natale solum of the Wolf does not seem to fit it for being the supposed origin of the Dog, since it is generally confined to the frigid zone: its size is also against the supposition; for the natural size of any species of animal appears to be between that of the large and small varieties. The Fox is still more unlike the Dog, as to some particulars in the structures of the intestines: the native country of the Jackal, which is properly Asia Minor, is the land where we should naturally suppose the primæval domestic Dog to have originated. The Jackal, according to Mr. Guldenstadt, has a natural propensity to follow mankind, instead of flying from him like the Wolf and the Fox. The whelp, he adds, is very readily tamed, and, when grown up, assumes all the habits of the domestic Dog: fawns on his master, rejoices, wags its tail, throws itself on its back, and murmurs gently, distinguishes its name, jumps on the table, &c. &c. &c.'

As no unfavourable specimen of the work, we are still tempted to transcribe the article TIGER:

'TIGER.

'Felis Tigris. *F. cauda elongata, corpore maculis omnibus virgatis. Lin. Syst. Nat. p.* 61.

'C. with elongated tail, and body marked with long transverse streaks.

'Tigris. *Gesn. Quadr.* 936. *Aldr. dig.* 101.

'Felis flava, maculis longis nigris variegata. *Briss. Quadr. p.* 195.

'Tigre. *Buff.* 9. *p.* 129. *pl.* 9.

'Tiger. *Pennant Quadr.* 1. *p.* 277.

'The Tiger, the most beautiful, but most destructive of quadrupeds, is a native of the warmer parts of Asia, and is principally found in India and the Indian islands. The species extends, however, as far as China, and Chinese Tartary, the lake Ural, and the Altaic Mountains. Its colour is a deep tawny, or orange-yellow; the face, throat, and under side of the belly, being nearly white: the whole is traversed by numerous long black stripes, forming a bold and striking contrast with the ground-colour. About the face and breast the stripes are proportionally smaller than on other parts: the tail is annulated with black, and is shorter than the body. There seems to be some variation in the proportion and number of the stripes in different individuals; and the ground-colour is more or less bright, according to various circumstances of age and health in the respective animals. Linnæus calls the Tiger "*pulcherrimus quadrupedum.*" We must not judge of the elegance of this animal's robe from the specimens which are sometimes seen in museums, or even from such living ones as by long confinement, and an alteration of climate, have lost the native brilliancy of their colours. When seen in perfection, and before its health has been impaired by confinement, it is scarce possible to conceive a more elegantly variegated animal than the Tiger:

Tiger: the bright and intense orange-yellow which constitutes the ground colour; the deep and well-defined stripes of black, in some parts double, in others single, the pure white of the cheeks and lower part of the sides, over which a part of the black striping is continued, form, altogether, an appearance far superior in beauty to the skin of the Zebra, or that of any other regularly-marked quadruped, not excepting even the Panther itself. In its general size the Tiger is inferior only to the Lion, and has been seen even larger, viz. of the length of fifteen feet from the nose to the tip of the tail. The largest are those of India, and are termed Royal Tigers; but this distinction is supposed to relate merely to the size of the animal; there being only one species of Tiger, though there may perhaps be some races larger than others.

'Of so fierce and sanguinary a disposition is the Tiger as to surpass in rapacity every other wild beast, and is, therefore, considered as the most dreadful scourge of the hotter regions of Asia. The Lion is commonly supposed to exhibit a certain degree of generosity of disposition, and to prey in a less malignant and cruel manner. He is also, when taken into a state of confinement, capable of being tamed, and rendered mild and placid to his keepers; but the tiger is not to be divested of his natural ferocity of character, and in confinement he generally exhibits all the symptoms of malignity. His method of seizing his prey is by concealing himself from view, and springing with a horrible roar on his victim, which he carries off, and tears in pieces, after having first sucked out the blood. The voice of the Tiger, in the act of springing on his prey, is said to be hideous beyond conception. Even a Buffalo has been thus seized by a Tiger, and carried off with such seeming ease as to appear scarce [scarcely] an impediment to the animal's flight. It is affirmed, that if the Tiger happens to miss his aim, he does not pursue his prey, but, as if ashamed of his disappointment, runs off.—In the beginning of the present century (says Mr. Pennant), a company, seated under the shade of some trees, near the banks of a river in Bengal, were surprised by the unexpected sight of a Tiger preparing for its fatal spring; when a lady, with almost unexampled presence of mind, furled a large umbrella in the animal's face, which instantly retired, and thus gave an opportunity of escaping from so terrible a neighbour. Another party had not the same good fortune, but in the height of their entertainment lost, in an instant, one of their companions, who was seized and carried off by a Tiger. But the fatal accident which so lately occurred in the East Indies must be still fresh in the memory of all who read the dreadful description given by an eye-witness of the scene. "We went (says the narrator) on shore on Sangar island, to shoot deer, of which we saw innumerable tracks, as well as of Tigers; notwithstanding which, we continued our diversion till near three o'clock, when, sitting down by the side of a jungle to refresh ourselves, a roar like thunder was heard, and an immense Tiger seized on our unfortunate friend *, and rushed again into the jungle, dragging

---

'* Mr. Monro, son of Sir Hector Monro, bart. This fatal event took place in the year 1792.'

him

him through the thickest bushes and trees, every thing giving way to his monstrous strength; a Tigress accompanied his progress. The united agonies of horror, regret, and fear, rushed at once upon us. I fired on the Tiger: he seemed agitated: my companion fired also, and, in a few moments after this, our unfortunate friend came up to us, bathed in blood. Every medical assistance was vain, and he expired in the space of twenty-four hours, having received such deep wounds from the teeth and claws of the animal as rendered his recovery hopeless. A large fire, consisting of ten or twelve whole trees, was blazing by us at the time this accident took place; and ten or more of the natives with us. The human mind can scarce form any idea of this scene of horror. We had hardly pushed our boat from that accursed shore, when the the Tigress made her appearance, almost raging mad, and remained on the sand all the while we continued in sight."

'The Tiger is described by Pliny as an animal of tremendous swiftness: "*animal tremendæ velocitatis.*" This, however, is said to be not so applicable to the pace of the animal in running, as to the velocity of his spring when darting on his prey. There can be little doubt, however, that the Tiger is in reality an animal of great swiftness, and Mr. Pennant adduces the authorities of two faithful travellers, viz. Pere Gerbillon and Mr. Bell, in confirmation of Pliny's account.

'The Tiger has been known to attack even a Lion, and both animals have perished in the conflict. The Tigress, like the Lioness, produces four or five young at a litter: she is at all times furious, but her rage rises to the utmost extremity when robbed of her young. She then braves every danger, and pursues her plunderers, who are often obliged to release one in order to retard her motion: she stops, takes it up, and carries it to the nearest cover, but instantly returns, and renews her pursuit, even to the very gates of buildings, or the edge of the sea, and when her hope of recovering them is lost, she expresses her agony by hideous howlings, which excite terror wherever they reach.'

The remaining species of *Felis* afford little room for remark. We may merely note, in passing, that the *Booted Lynx* of Bruce appears, from the description, to be perfectly distinct from the *Caracal.*

The common and sea Otters, the polar Bear, and the Kanguroo, form very entertaining articles: but our limits do not permit us to dwell on them.

The first part of the Second Volume is wholly occupied with the *Glires*; and the *Hystrix*, or Porcupine, in appearance so like the Hedge-Hog, but from its conformation holding a different rank in the method, is the first of the genera that is discussed.—The belief of a power inherent in the Porcupine, to dart its quills to a distance, is shewn to be fabulous: but the fable is ingeniously traced to a natural fact.

The

The *Cavies* and a few other genera have been very properly subtracted from the voluminous category *Mus.* The *Cavia Cobaya,* which we call *Guinea-Pig,* neither comes from Guinea, nor is a pig; which shews the futility of trivial names.

The occasional migrations of the *Lemming* and *Economic Rat* are prettily detailed in the present volume:—but, once more, we set bounds to our extracts.—Sonnini supplies an animated and striking history of the *Jerboa*; one of the few, but curious creatures which form the connecting link between birds and quadrupeds.—Two singular facts occur concerning the *Rabbit*; first, it is not indigenous to Great Britain; and, secondly, the characters which distinguish it from the *Hare,* escaped the penetration of Linné himself.

Part II. of the Second Volume includes the three remaining orders of the viviparous class, namely, *Pecora, Belluæ,* and *Cetæ.* Under the article *Camel,* instead of Buffon's eloquent harangue on the tyranny of man, we could have desired a few more details relative to the natural history of the animal, from Dr. Shaw's own pen.

In the prosecution of a work avowedly systematic, we look not for episode or digression. Yet, who could portray the *Rein-Deer,* and not recall the tranquil life of the Laplander? or, who can peruse Linné's celebrated apostrophe, and not sigh for repose? A late Scottish judge, more conspicuous for talents than feeling, remarked that the passage would *make a capital figure on an oyster.* Dr. S. has paid it a higher compliment; for he has clothed it in English verse.

We expected that the *Chamois* would have furnished some additional paragraphs.

The *Arnée,* as delineated by Kerr, and the *Yak,* by Captain Turner, are other instances of the happiness with which Dr. Shaw terminates his quotations.

The singular notice of *Equus Bisulcus,* being short, may be here inserted for the gratification of the curious:

'The very name of this species seems to imply a kind of equivocal and anomalous being; one of the most prominent characters of the present genus being a simple or undivided hoof. Indeed if only a single specimen of this animal had been described, we might have hesitated as to admitting it otherwise than as an accidental variety.

'The cloven-footed Horse is a native of South America, and was first described by Molina in his Natural History of Chili. In its general appearance, size, colour, and many other particulars, both external and internal, it resembles the Ass; but has the voice and the ears of a Horse, and has no cross or transverse band over the shoulders. It is very wild, strong, and swift, and is found in the rocky regions of the Andes or Cordilleras of Peru and Chili. The hoofs are divided like those of ruminant animals.

It

'It is singular that this curious species, which seems, as it were, to form a kind of link between the cloven-hoofed and whole-hoofed tribes, should have so long remained unknown to the naturalists of Europe.'

Much attention has been bestowed in collecting the most authentic facts relative to the *Hippopotamus*; and, from the not less accurate account of the *Tapir*, we are led to infer that these two singular genera have marked affinities.

Marten's narrative of the *Whale*, here stripped of superfluous expressions, and the accurate distinctions between the *Porpesse* and *Dolphin*, are particularly worthy of our attention.

The late celebrated Mr. Hunter's distinguished paper on the cetaceous family of animals, given from the Philosophical Transactions mostly in his own words, but occasionally somewhat abridged, forms a valuable Appendix.

We must reserve our account of Vol. III. for another opportunity, and conclude the present article with a few general observations.—With regard to the typography and engravings of this work, we are happy in informing our readers that they are executed in a manner which is suitable to its solid merits; though some errors of the press, omitted in the errata, might be pointed out: but they are mostly of a very trifling nature.—A few neologisms, harsh combinations, and slight inaccuracies of expression, struck us the more sensibly because smoothness, clearness, and elegance, usually form the character of the author's style. We question, for example, whether *predacious*, *salient* (in the sense of *leaping*), and *educational*, be sanctioned by the usage of the language. An English ear can scarcely relish *ocellated*, *edentulous*, *inappendiculated*, and *subtetradactylous*; and the phrases—*a sort of short*—*in but an indifferent*—*closish*—*difficultly*, &c. are peculiarly grating. *Most excessively strong*—*most extremely harmless*—*they often carry the young* ONE *and fondle* THEM—*more commonly found in moist* RATHER *than in dry*—*deprived of sleep for a considerable* SPACE, &c. may suffice as instances of careless composition.

Though it is our intention to consider the third volume with the least possible delay, we cannot take even a temporary leave of the author without returning him our sincerest acknowlegements for the various instruction and entertainment which he has afforded us. If, in the course of our account, we have hinted at trivial omissions, we need hardly remind him that no work of extent and importance was ever free from defect; and while we submit our remarks with deference to his mature consideration, we conceive that, if we have rightly estimated his character from his writings, he would not thank us for vague and indiscriminate approbation.

[*To be continued.*] Muir. ART.

ART. III. *The History of France*, Civil and Military, Ecclesiastical, Political, Literary, Commercial, &c. &c. from the Time of its Conquest by Clovis, A. D. 486. By the Rev. Alexander Ranken, one of the Ministers of Glasgow. Volume II.; from the Death of Charlemagne, A. D. 814. to the Accession of of Hugh Capet, A. D. 987. 8vo. pp. 350. 6s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1802.

IN a former article*, we gave an account of the first volume of this history, which pointed out with tolerable accuracy and precision the establishment of the power of Clovis, the conduct of his successors, and the means by which the Merovingian line of kings was superseded by Pepin d'Heristal, his son Charles Martel, Pepin, and Charlemagne. The present volume conducts us from the death of Charlemagne to the establishment of the Capetian dynasty, and discusses the various instances of weakness and imbecility which characterized the children and successors of that great monarch, and led to the overthrow of the Carlovingian race. The vast empire of Charlemagne required his splendid abilities and his unremitting vigilance to preserve it united: but the degeneracy of his family soon annihilated the Imperial power. He had subdued, and added to those dominions of France which he received from Pepin, Aquitaine and Gascony, the northern provinces of Spain to the river Ebro, all Italy (excepting Calabria), and the remainder of Germany to the Danube and the Vistula. His son Lewis succeeded without difficulty, but he possessed not the talents which were requisite for his situation. From his early and uniform habits, he was denominated the *Pious*, and his natural temper justly intitled him to the appellation of the *Mild*. Relaxation of authority, and imbecility of government, first appeared in the discontents and insurrections of his own family; and after a war, which destroyed one hundred thousand Franks, the empire was divided by treaty between his three sons, who had violated every filial duty. The kingdoms of France and Germany were by this measure for ever separated.

Mr. Ranken judiciously observes that,

'In the height of the prosperity both of the Merovingian and Carlovingian kings of France, we trace the causes of their decline and fall. Under their domestic favour, and by their royal munificence, a power arose, which undermined and overthrew them. By gratifying the ambition of the mayors of the palace, Clotaire II. gave them a rank and stability, which secured to him, indeed, a great extent of empire in the mean time, but which encouraged them to depress, and enabled them to trample on, his posterity. The Carlovingians were too anxious to justify their usurpation.

* Vol. XXXVII. p. 389.

Pepin's

Pepin's extreme desire to obtain the sanction of the pope, and to hold his sovereignty apparently from God: Charlemagne's ambition of the imperial title; and the general deference of Lewis and his sons to both the clergy and the nobles, individually and in their assemblies, exalted the church and the aristocracy above the crown, palsied the state, and ruined the second race.'

In the first chapter of the work, which treats of the civil and military transactions of the period during which the Carlovingian race continued to reign in France, we perceive little that is of an interesting nature: unless, indeed, we except the account of the establishment of the Normans, and the siege of Paris under their leader Sigefrid.—Mr. Gibbon observed that "The dregs of the Carlovingian race no longer exhibited any symptoms of virtue or power, and the ridiculous epithets of the *Bald*, the *Stammerer*, the *Fat*, and the *Simple*, distinguished the tame and uniform features of a crowd of kings alike deserving of oblivion."—In the annals of such princes, little is to be expected, that is calculated either to instruct or to entertain the reader.—Lewis the Fifth, the son of Lothaire, was the last king of the Carlovingian race; he reigned fourteen months, and died without children. His uncle Charles attempted in vain to succeed him; and the family of Charlemagne was now rejected after a continuation of power for the period of 237 years:—a new dynasty ascending the throne of France in the year 987.

In Chapter II. the state of religion and the nature of the ecclesiastical government are distinctly and ably considered: indeed, in this portion of the work, we discover greater marks of ability and more instances of valuable information than in the other parts of the volume. The clergy of this period were shamefully illiterate; the few who could write or read neglected the Scriptures, and generally applied to the canons of ecclesiastical councils, and to the writings of the fathers: while their moral conduct was equally disgraceful to themselves and pernicious to society.—The general state of the country, during the whole of this period, was unfavourable to the cause of religion, for it was involved in domestic contentions and distracted by foreign invasions; and religion, as well as wisdom,

"————Is a pearl with most success
Sought in still waters, and beneath clear skies."

The clergy were more intent on an increase of power, than on the proper discharge of their duties. Their frequent attendance at the courts of princes; their presence and co-operation in scenes of war, on account of the tenure by which they

held their benefices being that of military service; and the very endowments and privileges of the order; all contributed to the decay of religion and virtue.

'The extreme weakness (says the historian) of the civil government, and the arbitrary power of the church, cannot be better illustrated than by a short statement of the disorderly and lawless conduct of Hincmar bishop of Laon. He was the nephew and disciple of Hincmar archbishop of Rheims, who spared no labour or influence in carrying on his education, and promoting his interest. He introduced him to court, where he was employed, being a man of talents and address, in several affairs of importance, both foreign and domestic: he procured for him the bishopric of Laon, being within the bounds of his own church, in the province of Rheims.

'So much attention and paternal kindness produced for some time a becoming gratitude and reciprocal affection. He respected his uncle, and zealously promoted his measures; but the natural temper of neither uncle nor nephew appears very mild and accommodating; the former was imperious, and the latter was not submissive and humble. Having obtained court favour, the bishop of Laon accepted an office in the palace, and an abbey in another province, contrary to the canon law, and without consulting his uncle and metropolitan the archbishop of Rheims He refused to attend the synods to which he was summoned, for he was afraid to meet his uncle, or to submit to any interrogations or discipline. His disregard and fear rose to prejudice and resentment. He favoured and admitted to communion those whom his metropolitan and his friends had excommunicated; and others whom they favoured, he excommunicated. He proceeded to asperse his uncle's character, to treat him with personal disrespect, to revile, and even to threaten him. He next directed his turbulent spirit against the civil government.

'Charles the Bald had conferred the ecclesiastical lordship of Poüilly, in the diocese of Laon, on a baron named Nortmannus. Hincmar the bishop recalled this grant, as affecting his benefice. Nortmannus, refusing to relinquish it, was excommunicated by him, and forcibly driven out of his possession. He was farther accused by the bishop to the pope, as a sacrilegious robber of the church. The pope, always eager to interfere in the affairs of France, issued a mandate to the uncle the archbishop of Rheims, requiring him to excommunicate this lay-offender. The archbishop, conscious that this requisition was unjust, refused to execute it. Charles the king approved and supported the elder Hincmar, against his nephew and the pope. The bishop of Laon reclaimed, and brought the subject again to Rome, charging both the king and the archbishop with contempt of the authority of the holy see. In his rage, he excommunicated the clergy of his own diocese, for some disaffection shewn him. The sentence of excommunication was contravened by their metropolitan, by whose authority they were restored to their privileges.

'With a view to subdue this spirit and compose these differences, the king assembled the council of Pistæ, a place now unknown, which

which the bishop of Laon, though summoned, would not attend. His bishopric and revenues were seized by royal authority: but his uncle now interposed as metropolitan; and having insisted that it was illegal for the king to seize, or at all to touch, ecclesiastical persons or property, the matter was submitted by both parties to be decided by an ecclesiastical assembly. The synod of Verbery was convoked in May 869 for this purpose. The younger Hincmar attended; and, finding the current of opinions running against him, appealed to Rome. Being prevented by the king from leaving his diocese to prosecute his appeal, he took revenge, by excommunicating the whole people of Laon, interdicting the exercise of every religious function: infants remained unbaptized, the churches were shut, the dead were unburied. The archbishop of Rheims countermanded this interdict, and enjoined the clergy to discharge their duty: the bishop, his nephew, commanded their obedience to their immediate superior; and it is no wonder that the country was distracted.

'Pope Adrian, who appears to have been not only, like all his predecessors, desirous of ruling the church of France, but of humbling particularly the archbishop of Rheims, was always ready to listen to any one who appealed to him against that metropolitan, either for counsel or aid; and though he could not be ignorant of the character of the younger Hincmar, yet he encouraged and supported him in his rebellion against both church and state. He wrote to the king, requiring him to allow the bishop of Laon to attend his duty at Rome; and he ordained the metropolitan to take charge of his diocese in his absence, and see that it suffered no dilapidation nor injury from either prince or people. An assembly was held at Douzi A. D. 871, which the king and both Hincmars attended. The bishop of Laon was charged with ecclesiastical disobedience and with civil rebellion. The trial was tedious, but he was finally and unanimously condemned and deposed. Restless and vengeful, he was still moving sedition, when the king judged it necessary to banish him, to cast him into prison, to load him with fetters, and inhumanly to put out his eyes. On the death of Charles the Bald, pope John VIII. came into France, and, two years after this disgrace and punishment, restored this degraded bishop, in the assembly of Troyes, not to his see, which was thought improper, but to the communion of the church, and to the exercise of some ecclesiastical functions; and with the consent of the king, Lewis the Stammerer, he was allowed an annuity out of the revenues of the church of Laon. He died A. D. 882. These facts shew the distracted state of the church, the power of a single bishop to vex and disturb both church and state, the officious spirit of the pope, the deficiency of civil and ecclesiastical law, and the general weakness of government.'

In the account of the civil government of France, we are informed that the rigorous state of servitude, which prevailed in the period preceding the death of Charlemagne, experienced considerable mitigations during the reign of his successors. To this improvement the mild spirit of Christianity, (imperfect as its influence was,) and the firm conviction that the end

of

of the world was near at hand, in a great measure contributed. We read with sincere pleasure, mixed with some portion of surprise, the following sentence from one of the capitularies of Lewis and Lothaire: "It behoves every one to treat his inferiors with gentleness and compassion in exacting labour, in levying debts, and in imposing fines; all ought to consider one another as brethren: all have one God and Father, to whom they can with equal confidence address themselves, saying, '*Our Father, who art in heaven:*' all have access to one baptism," &c. &c. These sentiments breathe the true spirit of the Gospel; and they bring to our recollection a most impressive passage in Archdeacon Paley's Moral Philosophy, in which our duties are pointed out, and our obligation to perform them is stated as resulting from our being the children of the same Parent, sustained by the same bounty, involved in the same guilt, redeemed by the same Saviour, and hastening to the same end. The following regulation, on account of its humanity and benevolence, deserves to be imitated:

"Judges were required to give a preference to the poor, when they appeared in court, in so far as to hear their cause early, or before noon, prior to regal and ecclesiastical causes. The reason is assigned, that they could not afford to wait on the court until they were called, and obtained justice in the ordinary course. No one, more rich or powerful than they, was allowed either to purchase, or take, any thing from them, but at a public sale, or before suitable witnesses, to prevent even the suspicion of extortion and oppression."

Such rules, so wise and so kind in their operation, we should not expect to find in times of anarchy and violence.—Though we observe something unreasonable and absurd in their laws of evidence, yet several of their regulations are deserving of notice. No witness was admissible, if under the age of fourteen, if in any way concerned in the cause, if a near relation, or if any charge of immorality could be substantiated against him by the opposite party. A perjured witness was punished with the loss of his hand, and was for ever disqualified from again bearing testimony. Witnesses were not allowed to give evidence out of court, nor by letter, nor from hearsay; and writings duly dated, and attested by the subscription or signature of their author, were admitted as proofs.—In that division of the history, which treats of the government and laws of this period, we meet with many curious and interesting particulars.

Though we have derived much pleasure and information from this as well as the former volume of Mr. Ranken's history, and think that in each he has shewn many proofs of patient investigation and laborious research; yet we are compelled to remark that the style, in which he has communicated his

ideas, (particularly in the volume before us,) is highly objectionable. This defect is the more inexcusable, because the author has manifested his ability, in several portions of his work, to write with perspicuity if not with elegance; and the fault for which we now arraign him is imputable to inattention, rather than to ignorance of the rules of composition.

S.R.

ART. IV. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for the Year 1802. Part I. 4to. 11s. sewed. Nicol.

CHEMICAL *and* MINERALOGICAL PAPERS.

AN Analysis of a Mineral Substance from North America, containing a Metal hitherto unknown. By Charles Hatchett, Esq. F.R.S.—We shall give the history and description of this substance in the author's words:

'In the course of the last summer, when I was examining and arranging some minerals in the British Museum, I observed a small specimen of a dark-coloured heavy substance, which attracted my attention, on account of some resemblance which it had with the Siberian chromate of iron, on which at that time I was making experiments.

'Upon referring to Sir HANS SLOANE's catalogue, I found that this specimen was only described as "a very heavy black stone, with golden streaks," which proved to be yellow mica; and it appeared, that it had been sent, with various specimens of iron ores, to Sir HANS SLOANE, by Mr. WINTHROP, of Massachusets. The name of the mine, or place where it was found, is also noted in the catalogue; the writing however is scarcely legible: it appears to be an Indian name, (Nautneauge); but I am informed by several American gentlemen, that many of the Indian names (by which certain small districts, hills, &c. were forty or fifty years ago distinguished,) are now totally forgotten, and European names have been adopted in the room of them. This may have been the case in the present instance; but, as the other specimens sent by Mr. WINTHROP were from the mines of Massachusets, there is every reason to believe that the mineral substance in question came from one of them, although it may not now be easy to identify the particular mine.

'§ I. DESCRIPTION OF THE ORE.

'The external colour is dark brownish gray.

The internal colour is the same, inclining to iron gray.

The longitudinal fracture is imperfectly lamellated; and the cross fracture shews a fine grain.

The lustre is vitreous, slightly inclining in some parts to metallic lustre.

It is moderately hard, and is very brittle.

The colour of the streak or powder is dark chocolate brown.

The particles are not attracted by the magnet.

The specific gravity, at temp. 65°, is 5918.'

From

From the chemical experiments which are afterward related, the following appear to be the properties of this ore:

1. The nitric, muriatic, and sulphuric acids act but very feebly on it.

2. It may be decomposed by being alternately melted with carbonate of potash, and digested with muriatic acid.

3. By the above operations, the potash becomes combined with a metallic acid, and the ferruginous part is taken up by the muriatic acid.

4. The metallic acid may be separated from the alkali in the form of a white flocculent precipitate, by the addition of nitric acid.

5. Nearly three-fourths of the ore consist of the metallic acid, the remaining part being iron.

6. Nitric acid, whether cold or hot, does not act on the white precipitate, nor even produce the smallest change of colour.

7. When recently separated from potash, it is soluble in boiling sulphuric acid.

8. In like manner, it is soluble in muriatic acid.

9. Water precipitates this substance from sulphuric but not from muriatic acid.

10. When the acid solutions are saturated by any of the alkalis, they afford white precipitates.

11. Prussiate of potash produces an olive-coloured precipitate, and tincture of galls forms one of a deep orange colour.

12. Zinc immersed in the acid solutions forms a white precipitate.

13. The substance in question reddens litmus paper, but is nearly insoluble in water.

14. It expels carbonic acid from the fixed alkalis, combines with them both in the dry and humid way, and forms neutral salts.

15. It will not unite with ammonia.

16. It will not combine with sulphur when heated in contact with it.

17. Hydro-sulphuret of ammonia forms a chocolate-coloured precipitate, when added to the alkaline solutions.

18. With phosphate of ammonia, it affords a purplish blue glass.

19. It is of very difficult reduction.

'These properties (Mr. Hatchett observes) completely distinguish it from the other acidifiable metals; viz. arsenic, tungsten, molybdena, and chromium; and as to the other metals lately discovered, such as uranium, titanium, and tellurium, they are still farther removed from it.'

The author concludes his paper as follows:

'I am much inclined to believe, that the time is perhaps not very distant, when some of the newly-discovered metals, and other substances, which are now considered as simple, primitive, and distinct bodies, will be found to be compounds. Yet I only entertain and state this opinion as a probability; for, until an advanced state of chemical knowledge shall enable us to compose, or at least to decompose, these bodies, each must be classed and denominated as a substance *sui generis*. Considering, therefore, that the metal which has been examined is so very different from those hitherto discovered, it appeared proper that it should be distinguished by a peculiar name; and, having consulted with several of the eminent and ingenious chemists of this country, I have been induced to give it the name of Columbium.'

Observations and Experiments upon oxygenized and hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid; and upon some Combinations of the Muriatic Acid in its three States.* By Richard Chenevix, Esq. F.R.S. and M.R.I.A.—Mr. Chenevix remarks that the existence of hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid, in fact, rests at present on the conjecture of M. Berthollet:—but some notice has been taken of the saline combinations formed by passing a current of oxygenized muriatic acid through solutions of the alkalis or earths, by Messrs. D'Olfus, Gadolin, Van-Mons, Lavoisier, and others. Mr. Hoyle, of Manchester, however, has approached the nearest (with the exception of M. Berthollet,) to the real state of the combination of muriatic acid and oxygen with potash.—We regret that the nature of our Review precludes us from entering so fully into the contents of this elaborate paper as we could wish: but we must content ourselves with stating the principal results;—the first of which are, that 100 parts of hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid are composed of

Oxygen - - -	65
Muriatic acid - -	35
	100

and that the elements of hyper-oxygenized muriate of potash are,

Oxygen	38,3	{ hyperoxygenized Muriatic acid }	58,3
Muriatic acid	20		
		Potash -	39,2
		Water -	2,5
			100,0

* Mr. Chenevix observes; 'I have preferred this word to *oxygenated*, because *ate* is the appropriate termination of certain salts formed by the acids in *ic*. Some farther remarks upon this subject will be made in a work now in the press, entitled *Remarks upon Chemical Nomenclature*.'

In

In page 132, the proportions of oxygenized muriatic acid are stated to be,

Muriatic acid - -	84
Oxygen - -	16
	100

Mr. C. next proceeds to consider the oxygenized muriates; and in page 137, he remarks that,

'Upon the whole, it appears fair to conclude,

'1st. That the salts of this genus do really exist, previous to the formation of hyper-oxygenized muriate of potash.

'2dly. That the affinity exercised by hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid for ammonia, and (by very strong analogy) for the other bases, is much greater than that of oxygenized muriatic acid.'

The alkaline and earthy hyper-oxygenized muriates are next examined; and the author states the component parts of hyper-oxygenized muriate of potash to be,

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid -	58,3
Potash -	39,2
Water -	2,5
	100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Soda consists of

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid -	66,2
Soda -	29,6
Water -	4,2
	100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Barytes.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid -	47
Barytes -	42,2
Water -	10,8
	100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Strontia.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid -	46
Strontia -	26
Water -	28
	100

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Lime.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid.	-	55,2
Lime	-	28,3
Water	-	16,5
		100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Ammonia.

If carbonate of ammonia be poured into any earthy salt of this genus, a double decomposition takes place, and hyper-oxygenized muriate of ammonia is formed.—All attempts, however, which were made to ascertain the proportions of its principles, proved fruitless.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Magnesia.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriatic Acid	-	60
Magnesia	-	25,7
Water	-	14,3
		100,0

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Alumina.

The proportions of the principles of this salt could not be determined.

Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Silica.

Mr. C. is inclined to think that this salt does not exist.

The author next proceeds to consider the metallic combinations of muriatic acid in its different states; and, in consequence of some experiments which he relates, he establishes the following comparative table of the composition of calomel and corrosive sublimate:

Calomel.		Corrosive Sublimate.	
The oxide of mercury in calomel is composed of,		The oxide of mercury in corrosive sublimate is composed of,	
Mercury -	89,3	Mercury -	85
Oxygen -	10,7	Oxygen -	15
	100,0		100
Calomel is composed of		Corrosive sub. is composed of	
Mercury 79 } oxide of	88,5	Mercury 69,7 } oxide of	82
Oxygen 9,5 } Mercury		Oxygen 12,3 } Mercury	
Muriatic acid -	11,5	Muriatic acid -	18

The real hyper-oxygenized muriate of mercury is very different from corrosive sublimate. About four parts of water are sufficient to retain it in solution; and when sulphuric or even weaker acids are poured on it, it gives out the smell of

hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid, and the liquor becomes of an orange colour.

In treating the earthy hyper-oxygenized muriates with phosphate of silver, the liquor sometimes contained oxide of silver in solution, which, on examination, was found to be combined with hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid.—The salt is soluble in about two parts of warm water, and, by cooling, crystallizes in the shape of small rhomboïds, opaque and dull like nitrate of lead or barytes.—When this salt is mixed with about half its weight of sulphur, it detonates in the most violent manner, even on the slightest pressure.—The explosion of half a grain of the salt, with a quarter of a grain of sulphur, appears at least to equal that which is produced by five grains of hyper-oxygenized muriate of potash, with the due quantities of sulphur and charcoal.

The paper is concluded with the following observations:

'Muriatic acid is for us a simple body; but it has acid properties of the strongest kind; therefore, from analogy, we suppose it to contain oxygen. But may not this be too hasty a conclusion? Are we not very doubtful concerning the existence of oxygen in Prussic acid? And are we not, on the contrary, certain that sulphurated hydrogen, which possesses many of the characteristics of acids, does not contain any? Of the oxygenizement of fluoric and boracic acids, we have no proof: but then we cannot affirm that any one of these acids exists in three states of combination with oxygen; and the muriatic is the only radical of which we admit this fact. We must not, however, pretend to limit the number or degrees of combinations between combustible bodies and oxygen; but we can speak, with certainty, only of those things which are proved. Besides its acid properties, this substance has others, common to oxygenizable bodies. With 16 of oxygen, it forms an acid, which, in many of its properties, is to its radical what the sulphureous is to sulphur. Like the sulphureous, it is volatile; has little attraction for salifiable bases; destroys vegetable blues; and is capable of further oxygenizement. With 65 of oxygen, it becomes more fixed, like sulphuric acid; has a stronger affinity for salifiable bases; and acquires more truly acid properties. Upon these considerations, I submit to the chemical world, whether, in the present state of our knowledge, it be not more philosophical to say,

Muriatic radical, or some single word of the same import,	instead of	Muriatic acid;
Muriatous acid,		Oxygenized muriatic acid;
Muriatic acid,		Hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid?

'I am fully aware that, at first sight, this may appear extraordinary; and the more so, as we have no positive facts that prove muriatic acid to be a simple body. All we can, therefore, consider fairly, is, in favour of which appellation does the sum of analogies seem to preponderate? And, to give the cause a candid investiga-

tion, we should begin by considering, whether the presence of oxygen in all bodies that have acid properties, has been rigidly demonstrated; and not determine by this law of the French chemistry, till we are well convinced it has not been too generally assumed.

'If a nomenclature be not subservient to the uses of science, and does not keep pace with its progress, the relation between substances and their names will become so relaxed, that confusion will be brought about, by the very means we take to avoid it; and if, while we continue to extend our acquaintance with chemical bodies, nomenclature remains confined within its former limits, the bonds that unite these two parts of the science must inevitably be broken.'

Experiments and Observations on certain Stony and Metalline Substances, which at different times are said to have fallen on the Earth; also on various Kinds of Native Iron. By Edward Howard, Esq. F.R.S.—Mr. Howard commences this paper by observing that

'The concordance of a variety of facts seems to render it most indisputable, that certain stony and metalline substances have, at different periods, fallen on the earth. Whence their origin, or whence they came, is yet, in my judgment, involved in complete obscurity.

'The accounts of these peculiar substances, in the early annals, even of the Royal Society, have unfortunately been blended with relations which we now consider as fabulous; and the more ancient histories of stones fallen from heaven, from Jupiter, or from the clouds, have evidently confounded such substances with what have been termed *Ceraunia, Bætilia, Ombria, Brontia*, &c. names altogether unappropriate to substances fallen on our globe. Indeed some mislead, and others are inexpresssive.

'The term Ceraunia, by a misnomer, deduced from its supposed origin, seems, as well as Bœtilia,* to have been anciently used to denote many species of stones, which were polished and shaped into various forms, though mostly wedge-like or triangular, sometimes as instruments, sometimes as oracles, and sometimes as deities. The import of the names, Ombria, Brontia, &c. seems subject to the same uncertainty.

'In very early ages, it was believed that stones did in reality fall, as it was said, from heaven, or from the gods; these, either from ignorance, or perhaps from superstitious views, were confounded with other stones, which, by their compact aggregation, were better calculated to be shaped into different instruments, and to which it was convenient to attach a species of mysterious veneration. In modern days, because explosion and report have generally accompanied the descent of such substances, the name of thunderbolt, or thunderstone, has ignorantly attached itself to them; and, because a variety of substances accidentally present, near buildings and trees struck with lightening, have, with the same ignorance, been collected as thunderbolts, the thunderbolt and the fallen metalline substance have been ranked in the same class of absurdity. Certainly, since

'* Mercati, Metallotheca Vaticana, page 241.'

the

the phenomena of lightning and electricity have been so well identified, the idea of a thunderbolt is ridiculous. But the existence of peculiar substances fallen on the earth, I cannot hesitate to assert; and, on the concordance of remote and authenticated facts, I shall rest the assertion.'

The author then takes notice of the various accounts which have been given, in antient and modern times, of stones which have fallen or have been said to have fallen from the sky. The first of these peculiar substances, with which chemistry has interfered, was the stone presented by the Abbé Bachelay to the Royal French Academy.—The academicians analyzed this stone, and found it to contain

Sulphur - -	$8\frac{1}{2}$
Iron - -	36
Vitrifiable earth -	$55\frac{1}{2}$
	100,0

They were hence induced to conclude that it did not owe its origin to thunder; that it had not fallen from the sky; that it had not been formed by mineral substances fused by lightning; and that it was only a species of pyrites, without peculiarity, except as to the hepatic smell disengaged from it by muriatic acid.

The next and last analytical account of what is called a thunder-stone (*Pierre de Tonnerre*) is that of Monsr. Barthold; who, having described the stone of Ensisheim, states the component parts to be,

Sulphur -	2
Iron -	20
Magnesia -	14
Alumina -	17
Lime -	2
Silica -	42
	97—from 100 pts.

The Earl of Bristol, in a Letter to Sir William Hamilton, dated from Sienna, July 12, 1794, acquainted him that,

"In the midst of a most violent thunder-storm, about a dozen stones, of various weights and dimensions, fell at the feet of different persons, men, women, and children. The stones are of a quality not found in any part of the Siennese territory; they fell about eighteen hours after the enormous eruption of Mount Vesuvius; which circumstance leaves a choice of difficulties in the solution of this extraordinary phenomenon. Either these stones have been generated in this igneous mass of clouds, which produced such unusual thunder; or, which is equally incredible, they were thrown from Vesuvius, at a distance of at least 250 miles; judge then of its parabola.

rabola. The philosophers here incline to the first solution. I wish much, Sir, to know your sentiments. My first objection was to the fact itself; but of this there are so many eye-witnesses, it seems impossible to withstand their evidence." (Phil. Trans. for 1795, p. 103.)

'Sir WILLIAM HAMILTON, it seems, also received a piece of one of the largest stones, which weighed upwards of five pounds; andhad seen another, which weighed about one. He likewise observed, that the outside of every stone which had been found, and had been ascertained to have fallen from the clouds near Sienna, was evidently freshly vitrified, and was black, having every sign of having passed through an extreme heat; the inside was of a light gray colour, mixed with black spots and some shining particles, which the learned there had decided to be pyrites.

'In 1796, a stone weighing 56 lbs. was exhibited in London, with several attestations of persons who, on the 13th of December, 1795, saw it fall, near Wold Cottage, in Yorkshire, at about three o'clock in the afternoon. It had penetrated through 12 inches of soil and 6 inches of solid chalk rock; and, in burying itself, had thrown up an immense quantity of earth, to a great distance: as it fell, a number of explosions were heard, about as loud as pistols. In the adjacent villages, the sounds heard were taken for guns at sea; but, at two adjoining villages, were so distinct of something singular passing through the air, towards the habitation of Mr. TOPHAM, that five or six people came up, to see if any thing extraordinary had happened to his house or grounds. When the stone was extracted, it was warm, smoked, and smelt very strongly of sulphur. Its course, as far as could be collected from different accounts, was from the south-west. The day was mild and hazy, a sort of weather very frequent in the Wold hills, when there are no winds or storms; but there was not any thunder or lightning the whole day. No such stone is known in the country. There was no eruption in the earth; and, from its form, it could not come from any building; and, as the day was not tempestuous, it did not seem probable that it could have been forced from any rocks, the nearest of which are those of Hamborough Head, at a distance of twelve miles *. The nearest volcano, I believe to be Hecla, in Iceland.'

The following account of stones fallen in the East Indies, which was sent to Sir Joseph Banks by John Lloyd Williams, Esq. is so very remarkable, that we shall present it to our readers in the words of the author;

'A circumstance of so extraordinary a nature as the fall of stones from the heavens, could not fail to excite the wonder, and attract the attention, of every inquisitive mind.

'Among a superstitious people, any preternatural appearance is viewed with silent awe and reverence; attributing the causes to the will of the Supreme Being, they do not presume to judge the means by which they were produced, nor the purposes for which they were ordered; and we are naturally led to suspect the influence of pre-

'* Extracted from the printed paper delivered at the place of exhibition.'

judic

judice and superstition, in their descriptions of such phenomena; my inquries were therefore chiefly directed to the Europeans, who were but thinly dispersed about that part of the country.

'The information I obtained was, that on the 19th of December, 1798, about eight o'clock in the evening, a very luminous meteor was observed in the heavens, by the inhabitants of Benares and the parts adjacent, in the form of a large ball of fire; that it was accompanied by a loud noise, resembling thunder; and that a number of stones were said to have fallen from it, near Krakhut, a village on the north side of the river Goomty, about 14 miles from the city of Benares.

'The meteor appeared in the western part of the hemisphere, and was but a short time visible: it was observed by several Europeans, as well as natives, in different parts of the country.

'In the neighbourhood of Juanpoor, about 12 miles from the spot where the stones are said to have fallen, it was very distinctly observed by several European gentleman and ladies; who described it as a large ball of fire, accompanied with a loud rumbling noise, not unlike an ill discharged platoon of musquetry. It was also seen, and the noise heard, by various persons at Benares. Mr. DAVIS observed the light come into the room where he was, through a glass window, so strongly as to project shadows, from the bars between the panes, on a dark coloured carpet, very distinctly; and it appeared to him as luminous as the brightest moonlight.

'When an account of the fall of the stones reached Benares, Mr. DAVIS, the judge and magistrate of the district, sent an intelligent person to make inquiry on the spot. When the person arrived at the village near which the stones were said to have fallen, the natives, in answer to his inquiries, told him, that they had either broken to pieces, or given away to the Tesseldar (native collector) and others, all that they had picked up; but that he might easily find some in the adjacent fields, where they would be readily discovered, (the crops being then not above two or three inches above the ground,) by observing where the earth appeared recently turned up. Following these directions, he found four, which he brought to Mr. DAVIS: most of these, the force of the fall had buried, according to a measure he produced, about six inches deep, in fields which seemed to have been recently watered; and it appeared, from the man's description, that they must have lain at the distance of about a hundred yards from each other.

'What he further learnt from the inhabitants of the village, concerning the phenomenon, was, that about eight o'clock in the evening, when retired to their habitations, they observed a very bright light, proceeding as from the sky, accompanied with a loud clap of thunder, which was immediately followed by the noise of heavy bodies falling in the vicinity. Uncertain whether some of their deities might not have been concerned in this occurrence, they did not venture out to inquire into it until the next morning; when the first circumstance which attracted their attention was, the appearance of the earth being turned up in different parts of their fields, as before mentioned, where, on examining, they found the stones.

'The

'The assistant to the collector of the district, Mr. ERSKINE, a very intelligent young gentleman, on seeing one of the stones, brought to him by the native superintendant of the collections, was also induced to send a person to that part of the country, to make inquiry; who returned with several of the stones, and brought an account similar to that given by the person sent by Mr. DAVIS, together with a confirmation of it from the Cauzy, (who had been directed to make the inquiry,) under his hand and seal.

'Mr. MACLANE, a gentleman who resided very near the village of Krakhut, gave me part of a stone that had been brought to him, the morning after the appearance of the phenomenon, by the watchman who was on duty at his house; this, he said, had fallen through the top of his hut, which was close by, and buried itself several inches in the floor, which was of consolidated earth. The stone must, by his account, previous to its having been broken, have weighed upwards of two pounds.

'At the time the meteor appeared, the sky was perfectly serene; not the smallest vestige of a cloud had been seen since the 11th of the month, nor were any observed for many days after.'

Mr. Howard closes the historical part of his paper, by mentioning a specimen of iron now in the possession of the Right Hon. Charles Greville, but formerly belonging to Baron Born, and thus described in the catalogue intitled *Lithophylacium Bornianum*, Part I. p. 125.

"*Ferrum retractorium, granulis nitentibus, matrice virescenti immixtis, (Ferrum virens Linn.) cujus fragmenta, ab unius ad viginti usque librarum pondus, cortice nigro scoriaceo circumdata, ad Plann, prope Tabor, circuli Bechinensis Bohemiæ, passim reperiuntur.*"

It is added, in a note, "*quæ (fragmenta) 3 Julii, anni* 1753, *inter tonitrua, e cœlo pluisse crediliores quidam asserunt.*"

'The President (continues Mr. Howard) having done me the honour to submit his specimens of the Yorkshire and Italian stones to my examination, I became indebted to Mr. GREVILLE and Mr. WILLIAMS for a similar distinction: and, being thus possessed of four substances, to all of which the same origin had been attributed, the necessity of describing them mineralogically did not fail to present itself. To execute this task, no one could be more eager, and certainly no one better qnalified, than the Count de BOURNON. He has very obligingly favoured me with the following descriptions.'

We cannot enter into the whole of this description; and we shall therefore only state that there is a very singular coincidence not merely in the general history of the stones, but also in their general external characters; since, whatever may be their size, they are covered over the whole extent of their surface with a thin crust of a deep black colour: they have not the slightest gloss; and their surface is sprinkled over with small asperities. When broken, they are of a grayish ash colour, and evidently appear to be composed of four different substances, viz.

1. Small

1. Small globular or elliptical bodies, from the size of a small pin's head to that of a pea, and sometimes even larger.
2. Martial pyrites, of an indeterminate form, and of a reddish yellow colour.
3. Small particles of iron, in a perfectly metallic and malleable state.
4. A grayish white earthy substance, which serves as a kind of cement to unite the others.

The specific gravity of these stones is as follows:

Stone from	Benares	3352
	Yorkshire	3508
	Italy	3418
	Bohemia	4281

The analysis made by the French academicians, of the stone presented to them by the Abbé Bachelay, as well as the analysis of M. Barthold, must be liable to many objections, since each was made of an aggregate portion of the stone. Mr. Howard, therefore, very judiciously endeavoured, as far as was possible, to ascertain the composition of the separate parts of the stones which have just been enumerated.—We must be contented with stating the results.

Stone from Benares.

1. 16 grains of the pyrites yielded,

Sulphur	2
Iron	$10\frac{1}{2}$
Nickel nearly	1
Extraneous earthy matter	2
	$15\frac{1}{2}$

2. 25 grains of the metallic iron yielded,

Earthy matter	2
Iron	$16\frac{1}{2}$
Nickel	$6\frac{1}{2}$
	25

3. 100 grains of the globular bodies yielded,

Silica	50
Magnesia	15
Oxide of iron	34
Oxide of nickel	$2\frac{1}{2}$
	$101\frac{1}{2}$

Mr.

Mr. Howard observes that the excess of weight in this case is probably owing to the difference of the oxidizement of the iron, in the stone and in the result of the analysis.

4.100 grains of the earthly substance yielded,

Silica - -	48
Magnesia -	18
Oxide of iron -	34
Oxide of nickel -	2½
	102½

Stone from Sienna.

The pyrites could not be separated.

8½ grains of the iron contained nearly,

Earthy matter nearly -	1
Iron - -	6
Nickel -	between 1 & 2

The globular bodies were too few to be analyzed.—150 grains of the stone, freed from iron by the magnet, and as exempt as possible from the globular bodies, afforded, (exclusively of the weight of sulphur contained in the disseminated pyrites,)

Silica - - -	70
Magnesia -	34
Oxide of iron -	52
Oxide of nickel. -	3
	159

Stone from Yorkshire.

34 grains of the malleable particles yielded,

Oxide of iron -	37½
Nickel - -	4
Earthy matter -	4

150 grains of the earthy part of the stone afforded,

Silica -	75
Magnesia -	37
Oxide of iron -	48
Oxide of nickel -	2
	162

Stone

Stone from Bohemia.

16½ grs. metallic particles yielded,

Extraneous earthy matter -	2½
Iron about -	12½
Nickel - -	1½
	16½

55 grains of the earthy part afforded,

Silica - -	25
Magnesia -	9½
Oxide of iron -	23½
Oxide of nickel - -	1½
	59½

The author again remarks that the unusual increase of weight in the result of the three last analyses, notwithstanding the entire loss of the sulphur in the pyrites, is obviously owing to the metallic state of the iron combined with the sulphur.

In the latter part of his paper, Mr. Howard relates some experiments made by him on various kinds of native iron, which were presented to him by Mr. Greville and Mr. Hatchett. His experiments on the iron from South America coincided with those of M. Proust: the latter obtained 50 grains of sulphate of nickel from 100 of the mass: Mr. Howard obtained 80 grains of oxide of iron from 62 of the metal; and, from his process, he conceives that about 7½ of nickel were indicated, or about 10 per cent.

100 grains of the native iron from Siberia gave 127 of oxide of iron; and hence it should contain about 17 per cent. of nickel.

50 grains of the yellowish green vitreous substance yielded,

Silica - -	27
Magnesia - -	13½
Oxide of iron -	8½
Oxide of nickel -	½
	49½

26½ grains of the Bohemian iron left 1½ of earthy matter, and afforded 30 grains of oxide of iron, inducing an estimation of nearly 5 of nickel.

145 grains of iron from Senegal (brought by General O'Hara, and given to Mr. Howard by Mr. Hatchett,) afforded

199

199 grains of oxide; hence there may be an estimation of 8 grains in 145, or between 5 and 6 per cent. of nickel.

'It will appear, (says Mr. H.) from a collected view of the preceding pages and authorities, that a number of stones asserted to have fallen under similar circumstances, have precisely the same characters. The stones from Benares, the stone from Yorkshire, that from Sienna, and a fragment of one from Bohemia, have a relation to each other not to be questioned.

'1st. They have all pyrites of a peculiar character.

'2dly. They have all a coating of black oxide of iron.

'3dly. They all contain an alloy of iron and nickel. And,

'4thly. The earths which serve to them as a sort of connecting medium, correspond in their nature, and nearly in their proportions.

'Moreover, in the stones from Benares, pyrites and globular bodies are exceedingly distinct. In the others they are more or less definite; and that from Sienna had one of its globules transparent. Meteors, or lightning, attended the descent of the stones at Benares, and at Sienna. Such coincidence of circumstances, and the unquestionable authorities I have adduced, must, I imagine, remove all doubt as to the descent of these stony substances: for, to disbelieve on the mere ground of incomprehensibility, would be to dispute most of the works of nature.

'Respecting the kinds of iron called native, they all contain nickel. The mass in South America is hollow, has concavities, and appears to have been in a soft or welding state, because it has received various impressions.

'The Siberian iron has globular concavities, in part filled with a transparent substance, which, the proportional quantity of oxide of iron excepted, has nearly the composition of the globules in the stone from Benares.

'The iron from Bohemia adheres to earthy matters studded with globular bodies.

'The Senegal iron had been completely mutilated before it came under my examination.

'From these facts, I shall draw no conclusion, but submit the following queries.

'1st. Have not all fallen stones, and what are called native irons, the same origin?

'2dly. Are all, or any, the produce or the bodies of meteors?

'And, lastly, Might not the stone from Yorkshire have formed a meteor in regions too elevated to be discovered?

'Specimens of the Benares and Yorkshire stones have been deposited, by the President, in the British Museum.'

[*To be continued.*] Hatch.

ART.

ART. V. *Miss* Hamilton's *Letters on the Elementary Principles of Education.*

[*Article concluded from the last Review, p.* 408—416.]

THOSE who are acquainted with the excellent treatise of Locke on the Conduct of the Understanding, or who have profited by the maxims of the pious Watts on the Improvement of the Mind, will be rather surprized, perhaps, on seeing a lady undertake to tread a similar path, and to give directions on the management of the intellectual powers. Let them, however, suspend their admiration for a moment: here is no female champion arisen, who seeks to contest the prize with those veteran heroes. Miss Hamilton's plan, in this second part of her work, is not to make additions to the rules which have been ably laid down for the conduct of the mind: but, taking a more humble station, she proposes to furnish parents, nurses, and superintendants of young children, with the proper theory of the infant mind, and with the most effectual method of fostering the tender bud of intellect.

In the former volume, Miss H. called her reader's attention more particularly to those early associations, which have an influence on the passions and affections; and which, as distinct from the intellectual powers, she denominates the *heart.*—In this second volume, on the same principle of association, she proceeds to point out the extreme importance of guarding every early impression on the mind, which may tend to bias and direct the reasoning powers.

Letter I. contains some preliminary observations, and states the importance of obtaining a knowlege of the intellectual faculties in order to cultivate them with success. This is shewn as it regards the exercise of taste, imagination, reason, &c. *Taste,* Miss H. very properly distinguishes from *predilection*; since the latter may be exercised without a perception of real excellence. These observations the author considers as applicable to the *female mind,* as well as to that of man; and she reprobates the degrading system of inferiority in the treatment of the fair sex:—'a treatment worthy only of the discipline used in the zenanas of Eastern despots.'

Letter II. *On Perception.*—This term the author applies to denote the impression made on the mind by all the objects of sense. The consequence of watching over the early perceptions of children is shewn on various accounts; and very justly in the following passage:

'Every science which the human mind can pursue, every study in which it can engage, demands, as a preliminary, an attention to the objects of perception. In proportion as this attention has been ren-

dered habitual to the mind, from the earliest stage of life, will the rudiments of science be easy, and the progress delightful. A child who has been accustomed to pay attention to its perceptions, has received, from the various objects of sense, a fund of ideas which are ready to be brought into use; these, by the power of association, assist the mind in forming new conceptions. Children, who, either through the reprehensible neglect of their parents, or from some defect in their original conformation, have never made this improvement of their perceptive faculties, are, and necessarily must be, slow in comprehending any subject. They want, as it were, the first link of the chain, and have nothing whereon to fasten the new ideas with which you present them.'

The mistakes of parents, in their management of this faculty in children, are here pointed out.—We think that Miss H. contradicts her former theory, when she observes that a *severe fall* is apt to have a bad effect, from the association of terror in a child; and though her experience may be just, when she says that *attention* begins about the third or fourth month of infancy, we much doubt whether *almost all* a young child's ideas are derived from *sight.* We should attribute a great share of them to the sense of feeling, or the touch.

Letter III. *Attention.*—To illustrate the efficacy of cultivating the attention, the fair writer observes that hunters, sailors, &c. by fixing their eyes on distant objects, are able to discern things which to other persons are invisible. This may be true: but that, for the same reason, the peasantry are never *near-sighted*, we cannot admit: if instances be more rare among them, yet we believe that they are often so; and so are children, without suspecting it.—In this letter, we meet with a curious example of the effect of an *early attention* to smell:

'A person who has a natural antipathy to a cat, will immediately discover when one is in the room, even though it should be effectually hid from his sight. The same species of sagacity I once saw in a lady, who had an antipathy to dead birds. Soon after entering the parlour of a friend's house, where she went on a morning visit, she grew sick, and instantly declared that there must be a dead bird in the room. The bird-cage was immediately examined, and poor Dicky found dead at the bottom of the cage!'

In order fully to ascertain this point, however, it might be necessary to serve such a person as the Abbé Spallanzani did the Bat, and to blind-fold the lady at least, though not to put out her eyes, before she was admitted into the room:—but we close this letter with a more serious and more excellent subject of *attention:*

'Addressing myself to professed Christians, I should not have thought it necessarry to say so much upon this subject, if I had not observed the erroneous ideas concerning it, which now prevail. What harm

harm is there in doing this? what sin is there in that? is the common answer to every objection against pursuing the pleasures or the business of life on Sunday. From the scope of my argument it will appear, that the *harm* and the *sin* arises from perpetuating trains of thought, foreign to all that is of real importance to our eternal welfare. Such a total change of employment on every seventh day, as will serve to break these associations which tie our hearts to the world, and to introduce trains of thought favourable to devotional sentiment, to self-examination, to humility, and benevolence, cannot be deemed a matter of small importance; and most earnestly would I recommend it to parents to accustom their children from infancy to this change. The change of employment ought, indeed, to be so managed as to produce delight; which it will never do, if Sunday be made a day of wearisome idleness, or of gloomy restraint. Let it be a day of love, of cheerfulness, of familiar intercourse with your children. Let their little hearts be led to rejoice in Him who made them. Turn their attention to observe his goodness in the works of creation and providence. Make them sensible of the benignity which decreed a day of rest to those inferior animals, which are so useful to man: and by every means in your power, endeavour to introduce upon the day set apart for the service of GOD those trains of thought, which are connected with the emotions of delight and gratitude.

'It has been already observed, how far our associations are influenced by time, and place. By this law of the human mind, the advantages attending public worship will be sufficiently explained. Every prayer to GOD for Divine grace to assist us in conquering the evil dispositions to which we are, alas! too prone, introduces associations favourable to virtue: and if any particular hour of the day is habitually thus employed, the return of that hour will introduce these associations to the mind. Hence the advantages of devoting the morning to religious exercises. The train of thoughts introduced by these is the best preservative against temptation.'

The doctrine of association cannot be more piously nor more judiciously inforced.

Letters IV. V. VI. *On Conception.*—It would exceed our limits to attempt to give an abstract of these letters; and indeed the reasoning which they contain, founded principally on Locke's observations on the power of discerning, is not arranged in that clear systematical manner which could admit of any just analysis. Perception, conception, and attention, are here treated, as it were, together.—Many excellent observations will be found in these letters: but, as the author has nowhere defined her meaning of *Conception*, and leaves her readers to *infer* it, we shall in like manner submit it to our readers to do the same, from an example which Miss H. gives of *mistaken conception* in reading authors:

'A good lady I once knew, who devoted much of her time to the instruction of the ignorant. It happened, that I was by one

morning when one of her little *protegées* was reading to her in the Bible. The subject was the taking of Jericho. At every time that Joshua marched round the walls, a pause was made, and a lecture given by the good lady on the wonder-working power of Providence; of which I evidently saw her little auditor understood not one word. At length the trumpets sounded, and "now, Betty, now you will see how the walls of this wicked place will fall at the prophet's voice!"

'I here begged leave to speak, "Pray, Betty, what was Jericho? was it a man, or a woman, or a place, or what?"

"I believe it was a woman, Ma'am," returned Betty, with great *sang-froid.*'

Letters VII. VIII. IX. *Judgement.*—In the first of these letters, the importance of *exercising* the judgement of children, instead of *controlling* it, is ably inforced from the errors in life which flow from the source of this neglect; from unjustifiable attachment to *party;* and from the mistakes which want of judgement produces in reading history. The fatal effect of leading young minds to form a wrong judgement is shewn in female education, in particular, by the departure of so many *amiable unfortunates* from the path of virtue; whose apology Miss H. thus eloquently offers:

'Let it be represented to the juries, who are called (alas, so often!) to pronounce upon the heinous conduct of shameless matrons, that the creatures, whose crimes are thus exposed to public scorn, can scarcely be deemed accountable agents; since, in our ideas of accountableness, rationality is always included. Now ample proof can be brought, that from the cradle upwards, every possible pains have been taken to destroy the rational faculty. Without judgment, there can be no knowlege of first principles; without first principles, there can be no rule of conduct or of duty. How, then, can creatures be said to transgress against principles which they never had it in their power to comprehend? They were taught, that the sole duty of woman was *to be amiable.* That in order to be amiable, they must be accomplished and genteel; that is to say, that they must learn to dance, and dress, and "nickname GOD's creatures;" to talk sentiment, to affect sensibility, and to follow fashion into whatever follies she may lead. Have they not done all this? And now mark the inconsistency of man! They are accused of sinning against the laws of GOD and of their country; when they can call GOD, their country, and their parents, to witness, that their judgment was never sufficiently cultivated to pronounce upon the truth and propriety of a single precept, moral or divine! They were taught to look on personal admiration as the chief good; when they found it was no longer to be expected from the husband, were they to blame for seeking it in the admirer? Of all that they were taught to believe amiable, they are still possessed; for no one estimable quality of the heart or understanding was in the catalogue! Sensibility and sentiment comprised their only notions of virtue; and by giving way to sensibility

and sentiment they became adulteresses; or to speak in the more delicate terms of modern refinement, *amiable unfortunates.*'

The next letter, on the subject of *Judgement*, contains some farther remarks on studying history; in which the author (in our opinion, very justly,) prefers the study of a *detached period* to the perusal of a series of history, for the improvement of young persons.—At page 234, the word *poetical* seems to be printed for *political*; and in the next page the auxiliary *would* is substituted (*more Scotorum*) for *should.*—It is not a new remark that a certain species of absurd novels tends to corrupt the judgement.—We are surprized at the observation that 'a sensible child will soon perceive that nothing can exist without a cause.' Would Miss Hamilton forbear to attempt to give a child some idea of the being of a God?—In this letter, also, contrary to Solomon's advice, Miss H. remarks that female education *in former times* was better than in these. We shall not decide whether the lady "inquires wisely" concerning this point.

The succeeding letter on Judgement contains additional illustrations of the method of cultivating it, and points out some useful particulars in the education of the poor; particularly the religious education of both classes.—Having been informed that some pious persons have taken umbrage at what has been advanced in the former volume on the subject of religion, Miss Hamilton has scrupulously re-examined what was there introduced; and she is still of opinion that, 'where there are no conceptions, there can be no belief.'—In a limited sense, this proposition is true: but certainly there are many points which all religious persuasions admit, such as eternity, &c. although no adequate *conception* of such matters can be possibly formed.

Letter x. *Imagination and Taste.*—We were not so much gratified as we expected, in the perusal of this letter. Many of the observations are familiar; and few, if any, are put in a new light, or forcibly illustrated. The intention is to shew that the cultivation of all the intellectual faculties is requisite, in order to lay a foundation for a just taste or a lively fancy; and, to confirm this theory, the author *supposes* that Shakspeare's mother was a *woman of plain good sense.*—It it is here asserted that a susceptibility to the emotion of taste does not altogether depend on the original frame of our nature. We grant that cultivation is able to do much: but yet we agree with our friend Horace, that all the advantages in the world, even a *mother of plain good sense*, would little avail—"*sine divite venâ.*"—Our taste, or our imagination, is not accurate enough to understand Miss H. in the following

passage, so far as to comprehend the enchanting *beauty* of *sound;* though it may be true that

'By the ideas associated with them, a thousand sounds that are in themselves indifferent, nay, some that are rather in their natures disagreeable, become pregnant with delight. I have for the last half-hour been leaning on my elbow, listening to the distant tinkling of the sheep-bell, a sound so perfectly in unison with the surrounding scenery, as to appear enchantingly beautiful.'

The *power of vibrations* will perhaps appear to be better understood by the author, from this *additional chord:*

'It is no small incitement to the cultivation of taste, to reflect, that the emotions of sublimity and beauty are connected, not only with our devotional, but with our moral feelings. They coalesce not with any of the dissocial or malevolent passions; and can never be experienced while the mind is under their influence. By rendering the mind susceptible of the emotions of taste, we not only expand the circle of human pleasures, but as every emotion, of which the heart is capable, has a tendency to produce emotions that are in the same key, we give an additional chord, if I may so express it, to the harmony of the virtues.'

The cultivation of *taste* is recommended in *female education;* and we agree with the author that the care of parents, when they express their intention of giving their children a taste for this or that pursuit, often extends no farther than procuring for them perhaps a quarter of a year's instruction in that accomplishment:

'The emotions of taste, are, I believe, particularly congenial to the female mind; but it deserves our serious enquiry, how far the common mode of female education tends to cultivate, or to destroy, this natural susceptibility. When we hear a mother speak of giving her daughters *a taste for music, and a taste for painting*, we may, nine times in ten, conclude, that she means nothing more by the expression, than exciting in her children an ambition to exhibit to advantage their practical skill in these accomplishments.'

Letters XI. XII. *Abstraction.*—By Abstraction, Miss H. implies an acquirement of the habit of *generalizing ideas*, and of being able to take an enlarged view of causes and consequences. This faculty is here supposed to have been possessed in an eminent degree by our first parent Adam:

'And here we may remark, that in the account given us by Moses of the state of our first parents on their creation, the faculty of ABSTRACTION is represented as forming a distinguishing feature in the character of man, as he came from the hands of his great Creator. The capability of giving appropriate names to the animal creation was such a proof of the possession of this faculty, as unassisted reason would not probably have thought of producing, especially at a period when it is not to be supposed that the argument could be fully understood.'

We

We cannot speak to this point. Adam's *transgression* shews, alas! that he did not always take an *enlarged view of the consequences* of an action:—but let us hear how the fair writer applies the faculty of *Abstracting* to the education of females, as a point of much importance:

'Does it never happen, that a woman, from being incapable of taking a comprehensive view of her own and her husband's interests, unwittingly contributes to the ruin of both? Does no inconvenience ever arise from the pursuit of pleasures, which reason would disapprove? Do eager disputes concerning trifles never throw a little mud into the perennial stream of matrimonial felicity? Let these questions be answered by experience, and whatever may be pronounced with regard to youth and beauty, the cultivation of the reasoning powers will, to the married woman, be allowed not altogether unnecessary.'

This reasoning might have been illustrated by the example of *Eve;* who, in this sense, certainly shewed much deficiency in the power of *abstracting*, whatever was the case with Adam.

There are some passages in these letters on Abstraction, in which Miss H. will perhaps alarm many good mothers by her abstract notions and expressions; and the *energy of mind*, which is here required to be called into action, sometimes borders not a little on that quality which the author herself has known how to satirize in *modern philosophers*. Some inaccurate and inelegant phrases also occur in this part of the work: but we shall only farther observe on these two letters, that we conceive that they might be reduced to a more familiar style, and might be more adapted to *common apprehensions*, with much advantage. They might also be compressed, and the quotations omitted.

Letter XIII. On *Reflection.*—This letter, with which the volume concludes, places in many points of view the necessity and advantages of cultivating the power of reflection. The following extract will give some idea of the author's sentiments on the subject:

'In exact proportion as the power of reflection is enjoyed, shall we reap advantage from the cultivation of every other faculty. If incapable of applying our judgments respecting right or wrong to ourselves, we shall not be much the better for their accuracy. If we cultivate imagination so as to produce the most brilliant combinations, and are without the power of reflecting on their tendency, and from an examination of our own heart, discovering the emotions and dispositions which produced them, we may amuse ourselves by wandering in the flowery fields of fancy, but *will* (shall) never gather any of its precious fruits.

'Without the exercise of reflection, the faculty of abstraction is a dangerous gift. If we are incapable of referring to our own con-

sciousness for the truth of those opinions derived from general reasoning, we shall be liable to be imposed upon by sophistry; and be destitute of means to detect the imposition. Even in the cultivation of taste, it is impossible to proceed to any length without the exercise of reflection. Those who are destitute of this power never can be made to comprehend the principles upon which taste is founded. They, therefore, suppose the emotions of sublimity and beauty to be derived from some inherent instinct, as natural and as universal as that which assists us in distinguishing sweet from bitter. Nor without reflection upon the operations of their own minds, is it possible that they should see it in a different light.'

We have now conducted our readers to the close of Miss Hamilton's treatise on Education; and from the length of our review it will be obvious that, though we have suggested some disapprobation of particular passages, and have questioned some of the sentiments, we consider it altogether as meriting serious attention from those who are interested in the education of youth. We may more particularly recommend it as pointing out, with a skilful hand, the proper *principles* of education; and, with a becoming humility, grounding those principles on the basis of revealed religion.

Man.

ART. VI. *Plans and Views in Perspective, with Descriptions, of Buildings erected in England and Scotland:* And also an Essay, to elucidate the Grecian, Roman, and Gothic Architecture; accompanied with Designs. By Robert Mitchell, Architect. Folio. 3l. 3s. boards, plain; 4l. 4s. coloured. Taylor.

IT is a practice with many persons, in their early attempts in architecture, to publish specimens when they would be much better employed in studying models from the more able works of proficients; from which they might learn that drawing, without other acquisitions, is not sufficient to constitute an architect. We have often felt an unwillingness to mention these defective productions, on the success of which the author probably relies for his reputation: but we are sometimes called to exercise our functions with regard to them, by the manner in which they are given to the world.

Mr. Mitchell does not require our 'meed of praise,' since he is fully adequate to the office of eulogist, in describing his own work as containing 'one of the most elegant and convenient mansions,'—which displays 'elegant style,'—'elegant composition,' &c. &c.: nor, perhaps, will he much regard any opinion of a contrary tendency which we may express. Yet we cannot reconcile our ideas of propriety with the habitation on a *ferme ornée* being masked by a stately portico: nor with a bed-

a bedchamber-passage, or the landing of a staircase, being denominated a music-gallery. In the superior departments of arrangement, &c. peculiar correctness and accommodation could not be expected from works of this class: at least, we must confess that we have not been able to discern them in these designs. As *drawings*, the views are very creditable to Mr. Mitchell's abilities: but we have already observed that this talent alone will not form an architect.

In the essay intended to *elucidate* the Grecian, Roman, and Gothic architecture, the author observes that 'Architecture, as an art connected with science, had not existence till the invention of a column, and its application in the construction of buildings.' This is a position which we consider as indefinite and uncertain. If we credit some historians, buildings commenced with an arrangement of columns, on which the roof was placed; and successively the intervals between the columns were filled up, and a complete inclosure formed. Others assert that caves afforded the primeval prototype; and that, in enlarging the size of their structures, the early builders first applied the column internally to support the covering. Local matters and habitudes might induce either proceeding; instances of both kinds being found among the rudest savages, and in the portable mansions of the wandering tribes, in which the column becomes an essential part.—Again; Mr. M. says;

'Whoever will investigate the subject will, it is apprehended, find that there never have existed, in any age or nation, but three styles of architecture, the Grecian, the Roman, and the Gothic; as all other forms which have been introduced, shew architecture either in the progress which it afterwards attained, or on its decline.'

We cannot agree that the author has 'well investigated' the subject; for, what is the Chinese architecture to be esteemed? Is it Grecian, Roman, or Gothic? Surely, also, many others form a greater distinction than can possibly exist between the Grecian and Roman columns; which at the most can be reckoned only as varieties generated from the same stock.

'The earliest specimens (Mr. M. farther observes) which at this time exist, but which were well known to the Greeks, of buildings in which columns had been introduced, were in the temples of the Egyptians, and which we are assured have existed five thousand years. However striking these temples may *appear* from their uncommon magnitude, the columns in their composition *appear* exceedingly gross, as no regard has been paid to give proportions to their forms, nor to produce harmony in their arrangements. The capitals of their columns do not *appear* to have been copied from natural objects, but are fantastical shapes which owe their origin to the caprice of the inventors.'

We

We shall leave it to others to dispute the age of these Egyptian buildings: but, as to the fantastical shapes of their capitals, we apprehend that the author has not seen many representations of them. Where do finer imitations of nature exist, than in some of the specimens on the island of Philæ, near the cataracts in Upper Egypt?—and respecting their capitals of other shapes, we ought not to condemn them without inquiring into the causes which gave rise to the different forms produced in remote ages, and by distant people. There is much reason for believing that the Egyptian forms, particularly in their sacred structures, were in almost every instance symbolical; and while their regard to this subject occasioned that style to predominate, no doubt it was with them an object of the greatest admiration. The style being determined, it is poor criticism to condemn the parts which harmonize with the whole;—and where do we find buildings that exceed those of the Egyptians in massive grandeur? He who condemns the style of any particular country without possessing a knowlege of the notions, customs, superstitions, and relative circumstances of that country, resembles the man who should disapprove the form of a horse because it was not the same with that of some other animal. A little attention shews us that each has its parts suited to the intended purpose. The style may be good or bad according to its locality, or the uses to which it was to be applied. That of the Egyptians might be good in that age, and under the system of religion then prevalent on the borders of the Nile: it may be bad at this time in England.

We shall not occupy the attention of our readers with observations on more of this author's opinions; nor with the often repeated description of the Gothic architecture, being far from thinking that what he advances will tend to bring it to 'a perfection hitherto unknown:' but we must briefly remark, concerning the designs intended to elucidate what he calls the Grecian, Roman, and Gothic styles, that we cannot admire his mode of appropriating the forms of temples to dwellings; since we conceive that the external character should declare the designation of the interior. We hope that, in Mr. M.'s promised 'extensive treatise,' some attention will be paid to propriety in this respect: but that work will probably not be the worse if the author should previously devote a few years to the study of antient and distant architecture, in order to correct the questionable distinctions which occur in the present essay.

Saun.

ART. VII. *Communications to the Board of Agriculture:* on Subjects relative to the Husbandry and Internal Improvement of the Country. Vol. III. Part I. 4to. pp. 300. 10s. 6d. Boards. Nicol. 1802.

SCARCITY and dearness of grain induce governments to try various experiments, and to recommend new measures, in order to correct and prevent the return of the evil: but it may be much questioned whether their interference, except as far as it relates to procuring an immediate supply by importation, and recommending economy in consumption, be of any national utility. These maladies may arise not from any radical defect immediately existing in, and distinctly belonging to, our agricultural system, but from temporary or extraneous causes; and, since there is in human affairs a continual action and re-action, the disease itself works its own cure, without requiring those alterations and new regulations which in the alarm of the moment may be considered as imperiously demanded. To avoid one extreme, men often precipitate themselves on its opposite; or they satisfy themselves with those half-measures which, while they seem to do much, in effect accomplish nothing. In the scarcity of 1794, an alteration was made, by what is called Alderman Skinner's Bill, in the law for regulating the assize; apparently without considering that, under the former act, bread had for many years been at a very reasonable rate; and that there was no solid ground for imputing any part of the dearness to the existing statutes. The complaints against monopolizing were nearly of the same description; because, though scarcity or deficiency of crop affords to dealers in corn that opportunity of speculating to advantage, of which it is reasonable to suppose they will avail themselves, yet the monopoly is the consequence and not the source of the mischief; for no sooner do abundant harvests throw plenty into the market, than all complaints against these *rogues in grain* lose their foundation.

The late scarcity having been more alarming than that of 1794, its causes have been more seriously discussed; and it has led to an inquiry into the real productiveness of the kingdom, compared with its actual demand. The result of this investigation is that the culture of corn has been on the decline; and that a disposition has prevailed among farmers, to convert arable land into pasture. With the alleged motive of promoting the growth of corn, a number of inclosure bills have been passed; though facts have shewn that the tendency of inclosures is to encourage pasturage. Year after year, the inclosing scheme has proceeded with accelerated velocity; and

yet corn has been dear and the poor-rates advancing. At last, it was suggested that the desired object would be attained if landlords would, on a valuable compensation being given, allow tenants to plough up certain portions of their farms, which by their leases they were bound to keep in grass. This idea was deemed of so much importance, that a Committee of the House of Lords referred itself for advice to the Board of Agriculture, requiring it "to examine into, and to report to their Lordships, the best means of converting certain portions of Grass-Lands into Tillage, without exhausting the soil; and of returning the same to grass, after a certain period, in an improved state, or at least without injury." In consequence of this requisition of the Lords, the Board of Agriculture endeavoured to obtain the fullest information, by offering premiums for the best Essays on this subject; and the volume before us is the result of this appeal to the intelligent body of British Cultivators.

It may fairly be presumed that the several writers, on the subjects proposed by the Board for discussion, were more influenced by motives of a patriotic kind than stimulated by the proposed rewards, in communicating their respective sentiments; and it is highly gratifying to us, because it is honourable to the character of the English Farmer, to perceive the vein of good reasoning and sound judgment which pervades the whole. Indeed, the general impression will be that Farmers require not the leading-strings of Government; and that the proposition, to which the inquiry was designed to serve as a basis, embraced but a very small part of the subject to which it belonged. Be this, however, as it may; a number of sensible Essays have been obtained, some professedly not in claim of premiums, and others competitors for reward.

Among the former description, are those which have been furnished by Sir John Sinclair, Dr. Walker, Mr. Dalton, Mr. Maxwell, and Sir Charles Middleton. These papers are short, but they merit attention.—Sir John Sinclair distinguishes, as do all the writers in this volume, between land which ought to be kept perpetually in grass, and that which may be broken up and laid down again to advantage:

'It is the opinion (says he) of Mr. Culley, that soft heavy loams, with a clayey or marly bottom or substratum, are universally injured by ploughing. Water meadows, also, should never be ploughed, as they furnish so large and valuable a produce in spring, in summer, and in autumn, without any other help than water, whilst the manure made from that produce goes to enrich the rest of the farm.

'With these exceptions, and that of land apt to be overflowed, there is every reason to believe that old pastures may occasionally be converted,

converted, with public advantage, and private benefit, into arable land.'

In opposition to this doctrine, suited as it seems to the exigencies of the times, the reader will find some sturdy advocates in behalf of the old pastures.

Dr. Walker attributes the decline of tillage to a growing preference for, and increased consumption of, animal food.

Mr. Dalton thus delivers his sentiments respecting meadows:

'If old grass land, which answers well the valuable purposes of meadow, feeding, and the dairy, has a good colour, and is never mossy, I should not recommend the converting it to tillage at all, as I am fully persuaded, that after being delivered over to a tenant to be ploughed for eight or nine years, let the landlord or his agents take what care and precaution they will, they will not for many years see it equal to what it was formerly.'

Sir Charles Middleton and Mr. Maxwell detail their practice of breaking up and laying down.

The dissertation in this volume, which seems to merit most attention, is that which stands at the head of the prize-essays, by the Rev. H. J. Close, of Hordle, near Lymington. Besides the observations designed to meet the specific requisitions of the Board, Mr. C. volunteers some important introductory remarks, in which the good qualities of his head and heart are equally conspicuous. Among the obstacles to agricultural improvement, he enumerates tithes,—'the difficulty and expense of inclosing waste lands,—expensive and injudicious leases,—want of knowlege in the practical farmers,—the great increase of the poor-rates,—and a want of that energy, which formerly characterized the agricultural labourers of this island.'

On the first of these subjects, he thus states his opinion:

'Though a clergyman, and deriving the chief support for myself, a wife, and eight children, from the revenues of the Church, yet I must candidly acknowlege, that tithes operate as a direct tax on the skill, the capital, and industry of the country; and I believe most of my brethren would rejoice, could any other mode of payment be devised, which would secure to them, and their successors, the same rank in society which they now fill with so much credit to themselves, and with such advantage to the community. I am aware that this is a subject of the utmost importance, and that it will require the attention of the most skilful politician, to relieve the country from this oppressive tax, without injury to a most respectable and useful body of men. Indeed it is a subject which involves in it every thing which an Englishman—a Christian, can hold dear. Our political and religious polity will be more firmly established, or shaken to the very foundations, as this question, whenever it may be agitated by the legislature, shall be well or ill conducted. Under these impressions, I should enter upon the subject with no small degree of agi-

tation,

tation, were I not conscious, that, should the opinions of an obscure individual, like myself, prove erroneous, they will remain unnoticed by your Lordship and the Board of Agriculture; and if ever they should meet the public eye, they will be equally disregarded by the good sense, which, in this enlightened æra of society, pervades the nation.

'The plan I am about to propose to the Board, is simply this:—Let the tithes of the kingdom be valued, and each proprietor of land have the refusal of the tithes of his own property at the valuation. Should this business be well conducted, the interest of half, or at most, three-fourths, of the capital thus raised, and vested in the public funds, would secure to the clergy, the amount of their present incomes; and the remainder of the capital might be an accumulating fund, to prevent the present incumbents, or their successors, from suffering any injury by an advance on the necessary articles of life, and a consequent depreciation in the value of the circulating medium. Once in four or five years, the average of the price of wheat, the staple and most necessary grain in the country, should be taken; and should it appear that an advance had taken place, the incomes of those who had disposed of their tithes, should receive a proportionate addition. But as no power on earth should invade the property of any individual, or oblige him to dispose of it without his free consent, I would propose, that the attempt to release the nation from this tax, should originate with the King's most excellent Majesty, who is ever ready to alleviate the distresses, and add to the comforts of his people. His Majesty, with the consent of the Imperial Parliament, may undoubtedly dispose of all the preferment in the patronage of the Crown; and to induce the present incumbents to approve of such a measure, an addition to their incomes of fourteen or fifteen per cent. might be offered, to all those who have received a composition in lieu of tithes, and whose agreements commenced previous to the year 1795, or these years of scarcity. To others, the commissioners might make, in writing, such offers as seemed in their judgment equitable, from which no deviation should be made. Suppose the incomes of the parochial clergy, holding livings under the patronage of the Crown, to amount to 110,000l. a year; to this calculation, if it may be so termed, must be added at least one-third, to come near the full value of the tithes arising from this preferment, independent of those belonging to the dignitaries, which are not included. This would amount to upwards of 146,000 pounds *per annum*, and at only twenty-six years purchase, though tithes are usually sold at thirty, would raise the sum of 3,796,000l. which, at only four per cent., would secure to the clergy holding such preferment, their present incomes, and leave about 40,000l. a year as an accumulating fund. The effect this would have upon the public funds, must be evident. His Majesty would not be deprived of his patronage; the clergy and their successors would be secure of holding their present rank in the scale of society; and the agricultural interest of our island would be exonerated from a burden, which is as at present a constant subject of complaint. Were this scheme adopted, and put in practice with the livings in the gift of the

the Crown, and free liberty given to other patrons and incumbents to pursue the same plan, I am of opinion, no such mode of payment as tithes would subsist in twenty years. Let a proportion of every man's farm be free of tithes, and he may crop the other part so as to make it the interest of every lay impropriator to sell at a fair price; and with the clergy, there would be few who would make any objection, should the plan proposed appear to them, as it does to me, a very eligible one. I have been informed that Mr. Pitt has a scheme in agitation, somewhat similar to this. Should this prove true, he will have my hearty good wishes and most sincere prayers for his success.'

We shall have an opportunity, before we close this article, of transcribing the opinion of another clergyman relative to tithes. In noticing the increase of the poors'-rate, and the modern mode of paying them and of doleing out the parish allowance, Mr. Close has well explained the decline of that energy which formerly characterized the agricultural labourers of this island:

'Another evil has arisen from the same cause. These men have not only lost this stimulus to exertion, but such has been the pressure of the times, that the acting Magistrates have been under the necessity of giving another deadly blow to superior skill, strength, and energy, by their mode of applying relief. The plan, I have no doubt, was adopted as the most economical which could be devised, and economy in the distribution of parish money, was absolutely necessary. I do not mean therefore, to cast the least reflection on the acting Magistrates, where the plan, I am alluding to, has been put in practice. The gratitude of the country is due, in a great degree, to those gentlemen, who in these times of distress and difficulty, bear so large a proportion of the burden of the state, by discharging the duties of so necessary and so troublesome an office. A more equitable mode of relief, perhaps, could not be devised, but the effects have proved very injurious to the general welfare and prosperity of our island. The plan I allude to is that of ascertaining precisely, the earnings of each man, his wife and family, and enlarging or curtailing the parish allowance accordingly. This, at first view, may appear equitable, as every family must thus be enabled to live. But no one, by any exertion, can procure for himself and family any additional comfort. The effect of this levelling principle must be, that as all are paid alike, all will work alike; and as it is impossible, by any contrivance, to strain a man of a weakly frame, ignorant, and unskilful, up to a pitch, so as to equal one of double his strength and ingenuity, the latter will naturally relax, and will never exert himself, either by task or day work, to perform a greater proportion of labour than the former. These circumstances combined, have been attended with the most serious consequences. I am fully persuaded, that by the aggregate body of agricultural labours, not more than three-fourths of the same work is performed, as was done ten years back, by the same number of hands.'

When

When Mr. Close has dismissed the prefatory matter contained in the first chapter, and comes to the professed subject of his essay, he details the mode which he pursued in converting old sour grass-lands into tillage; and in order to give the Board an accurate idea of the advantages derived from it, he states the annual value of a farm when he purchased it, the money which he gave for it, the sum which he received for his improvements, the rent at which he let it on a twenty-one years' lease, and the price at which he afterward sold it.

'There were two hundred and thirty-five acres, valued at one hundred and twenty pounds *per annum*, (the tenant paying twenty pounds a year land-tax,) and the price I paid for it three thousand three hundred pounds. I received for my improvements of the tenant five hundred pounds; besides three hundred and fifty pounds which the old pollard trees sold for; let the farm for two hundred and twenty pounds, the tenant paying twenty pounds a year land-tax, and covenanting to keep all the buildings, &c. in perfect repair. I then sold it for six thousand five hundred pounds. The gross produce per acre of these old sour grass-lands could not exceed twenty shillings; and little or nothing was expended on productive labour. Ever since they have been converted into tillage, double the former gross income must have been expended for labour, and the aggregate produce at least six pounds and six shillings on every acre, including the whole rotation of crops. You have here, Gentlemen, one strong proof of the utility of converting certain portions of grass lands into tillage. This farm is now in such a high state of cultivation, that any part of it might be converted into meadow-land.'

A variety of other important information is also communicated: but we must dismiss this essay with transcribing the writer's brief conclusive opinion on the matter at issue: 'Fine rich meadows on the banks of rivers liable to be flooded, and such as can be irrigated, no one would think of converting into tillage, but all grass lands from ten to thirty shillings per acre rent, I should wish to see tilled by judicious agriculturists.'

The next paper is written by Mr. Thomas Davis of Longleat; who, in one respect, attributes the scarcity of wheat and the great quantity of land (particularly of strong wheat land) laid down to grass within the last twenty years, to the price of wheat not having advanced in proportion to that of every other production of land. In afterward describing the lands which ought to remain in grass, and those which ought to be in tillage, he lays down this maxim; that '*all land should be kept in that state in which it will yield the greatest* permanent *rent to the owner*, since whatever kind of husbandry is for the interest of individuals is, collectively, for the interest of the public.' Allowing this to be sound doctrine, it is best to permit agriculture, like trade, to find its own level; and not, by compulsion

pulsion or restraint, obstruct its natural progress. Mr. Davis's answers to the questions proposed in the advertisement of the Board are generally judicious: but in one respect he differs from Mr. Close: viz. he recommends feeding grass the first year after it has been laid down, which Mr. Close (in p. 58.) strongly reprobates.

The succeeding Essay, by the Rev. Arthur Young, son of the celebrated agriculturist, will be read with much pleasure. The writer's remarks on the general principle, in which this inquiry originates, are pertinent; and he well explains, that which indeed ought always to be comprehended in the question under discussion, the external circumstances which lead to pasturage or tillage:

'If the price of corn, during a period of many years, be found to be lower, on a fair comparison, than the price of meat, butter, and cheese, it is reasonable to suppose that the conversion of the soil (if any) would be to pasturage; always carrying along with us the fact, that grass products are gained at less hazard, and at less expense to landlords, than arable ones; which will have a certain influence in favour of grass, under every possible variation.

'Now the fact has been, that from 1771 to 1794, being twenty-four years, the average price of wheat for all England was 5s. 8d. a bushel. We have no registers of the prices of meat, butter, and cheese; I must therefore assume a fact, in which I believe I need not fear contradiction, that the latter prices, whatever they might be exactly, were at least on the balance higher in proportion than wheat: the truth is, 5s. 8d. a bushel is much too low a price to induce any exertion in extending those efforts, which increase the product of corn.

'If the price of 1795 and 1796 had induced them to plough, what would they have said in 1797 and 1798? It is true, two high years have come since; but this does not prove that we shall not see wheat again at 5s. or 6s. a bushel; and what then will be the ideas of those men who have been induced to plough large tracts of land well adapted to grass? Such statements are of no use without the conclusion; which is, that the Legislature should, *by a revision of the corn laws, secure the landlord from the apprehension of future prices being too low to compensate the farmer for his expenses, and himself for permitting tillage.* This is easily done, and we may therefore hope it will be done.'

In laying down rules by which additions of rent should be estimated on breaking up pasture land, Mr. Young adverts to tithes taken in kind as an insurmountable obstacle. He supposes that the landlord's rent for the land to be ploughed up is now 15s. per acre; and, by taking a rotation of seven crops, he endeavours to shew that, reckoningthe tithe at 5s. per acre, the additional rent can only be 6s. 5d. He then adds;

'Those who think tithes are not prejudicial to agriculture, may examine such cases as these. Let us calculate this instance again, and suppose the tithe taken in kind.

			£. s. d.
One-third as before for rent, tithe, and rates -			1 12 5
Produce - - - - -	£.35	6 0	
The tenth for tithe - -	3	10 7	
The seventh of which - -	0	10 1	
Rates - - - - -	0	6 0	
			0 16 1
Remains rent			0 16 4

'Here, in one case, the landlord has an adequate inducement of 6s. 5d. additional rent; in the other he has 1s. 4d. which only could induce him to let the land remain in grass. In one case he would consent to breaking up, in the other he probably would not: the tithe of grass produce, taken in kind, could amount at the utmost to between 4s. and 5s.; but from the arable that sum is more than doubled; while the Rector therefore would get above 5s. an acre, the landlord would have only 1s. 4d. From this comparison it appears, that the Gentlemen who are apt to think tithe a small matter, when called only a tenth, (a proportion which they think has but little influence on the nine-tenths remaining,) mistate the matter; the preceding is evidently a case in which 10s. 1d. the tithe is measured with 26s. 5d. in one proportion being not far from two-fifths, and with 16s. 4d. rent in the other, in which it is much above half. Compare the tithe with another object, the farmer's profit; if his farm be stocked at 5l. per acre, and he make 12 per cent. it is 12s. Will any person contend that 10s. 1d. is not a sum that will in any branch of industry in the world have a material influence by its proportion to 12s.? Throw rent and profit together, 33s. the tithe is near to one-third. Those who measure it with gross produce only, talk idly; the produce is not the motive that influences the various applications of land, but the rent and profit; and if tithe bear a large proportion to these, it bears a powerful influence on the conduct of those who direct the product of the soil. If the farmer's stock be only 4l. an acre, (and more land is stocked with that sum than with 5l.) his profit is 9s. 7d.; that is less than the tithe of the same land: this is not the place for calculations to prove that the profits of husbandry should be estimated by a per centage on capital employed, and as to 12 per cent. no one will think the proportions unfair at average prices.

'The author of this Paper has a due veneration for the church, as sincere a veneration as those may have, who are violent against any commutation; he wishes prosperity to its temporal concerns; but he sees tithes in what he conceives to be the just light, and cordially wishes their possessors to receive their emoluments in some mode free from the numerous objections to the present method of paying them.'

We

We are sorry that we cannot make more quotations from this valuable and elaborate paper; in which an attention is recommended to the rise of the poor-rates and the price of labour, and in which the writer's opinion on the immediate topic of inquiry is thus explicitly given:

'I have great apprehensions that any encouragement to break up grass lands generally, will have mischievous consequences; ever excepting wastes, and grass fields on dry soils that evidently want the plough as the means of improvement. Should the present high prices of corn tempt landlords to permit much ploughing, where it is not really necessary, I have not the smallest doubt but they will suffer by it in the end.

'And as the Board would certainly desire to avoid giving advice which may prove eventually unfortunate, I humbly presume to add, that they cannot consider the subject too deeply, in all its most remote bearings and connections, before they offer any recommendations that shall have the least indiscriminate effect. If an increase of tillage be found essentially necessary, at a hazard, the waste lands of the kingdom are the proper subject for it, and by no means converting grass lands to tillage, which are advantageously employed at present; and which would admit, perhaps, the radical improvements of draining and manuring, very profitably in their present situation.'

The Rev. Edmund Cartwright follows Mr. Young in a more concise paper, which, however, discovers an intimate acquaintance with the subject. He concludes with remarking that, 'Should the agitation of a question, evidently brought forward by the peculiar exigency of the times, lead to a more extended cultivation of corn, without lessening the production of animal food, the present scarcity may be considered as having laid the the foundations of future plenty; and the public will have derived, in the event, a permanent blessing from a temporary evil.'

It is evident, from the motto to the next paper, which side of the question is taken by its author, Mr. Goring, of Weston near Steyning:

——— *facilis descensus* (*aratro*).
Sed revocare pedem! ———
Hoc opus, hic labor est.

Mr. G. strenuously opposes the breaking up of old pasture land: but, though most of his observations merit attention, we must transcribe only one short passage:

'It seems less difficult to discover the best method of returning arable land to pasture, than to enforce the practice of it. Should a general licence be given to break up old pastures, the crops would be taken off, and the return of the dung would be forgotten. The injury to the public would be great, and almost irreparable. No particular mode of ploughing, or choice of corn-crops, however judicious, could make amends to the ground for the loss of its

manure, and it would be in vain to expect from any superficial contrivances of art that success, and those solid advantages, which fall to the share only of unremitted labour, and unwearied assiduity. The earth is a kind mother if she be liberally treated; but seldom suffers herself to be cheated of her just dues with impunity.'

On the subject of paring and burning, when breaking up grass land, Mr. G. is also at variance with most of the authors in this volume, who generally contend for the utility of the practice. Dr. Campbell, of Lancaster, however, in the succeeding Essay, cautions farmers against having recourse to this mode, in the dry soil of the up and hard lands.

Dr. Wilkinson, of Enfield, wisely suggests that the temptation to break up the old sward may be attended with an evil not at first contemplated, viz. ' that, with a diminution of the quantity of grass, the number of cattle kept on a farm will probably be reduced, and the supply of dung lessened, while the demand for it is increased.' This is a very important consideration.—Dr. W. mentions the influence of irrigation in the re-production of sward, and the peculiar strength of tallow-chandlers' graves, as a manure:

' This is one of the strongest manures which the animal kingdom can furnish. When laid on grass land, it should be either spread very thin, and broken into small pieces, or applied in compost with mould. I have used it to the amount of a ton an acre, at half-a-crown a hundred weight. The grass was rendered so rank, that for some time cattle would not touch it, and the hay was too coarse for sale. On account of its rankness, I generally use it mixed with mould or ditch earth. Its effects are visible for some years after it has been laid on, in the superior verdure of the grass. On trying it for barley, it made the straw so rank, that it bore scarcely any grain; and the best method of applying it to arable land is to the turnip crop, where I have found it far superior to dung. I have been the more particular in mentioning its effects, as I have not found it noticed by any of the writers on husbandry.'

Mr. Boys, of Betshanger, Kent, recommends, among other pertinent advice, the conversion of grass or chalk land and downs into tillage, as one of the most advantageous improvements in agriculture, if well conducted.

Mr. Greenall, of Eccleston, Lancashire, is the author of the last Essay; which details the process and profit attending the conversion of some grass land into tillage, and concludes with the two following observations: to the former of which all will probably assent, but only among tenants can he expect to find subscribers to the latter:

' In converting grass lands into tillage, care should be taken that it is done in a manner that the prices of cattle may not increase be-

yond their value, by their numbers being decreased by converting grass lands into tillage; this would be attempting to remove one evil, at the certainty of creating another.

'If old pastures are broken up, some other land must be laid down for pasture; and the only advantage the tenant can reap from it will be (perhaps) a better crop of corn from the fresh land; and if he lays the land down well that is for pasture, the expense of manuring, &c. will be equal to any advantage he will receive from ploughing the other. No increase of rent should take place; but the tenant should buy as much manure for the land laid down to pasture as the increased value of the crop of corn, which, perhaps, on an average, may be 4l. per acre, and also to provide all grass-seeds at his own expense.'

On the whole, the comparative statements and calculations here exhibited are curious and interesting. The prevailing opinion is that old rich pastures ought to be held sacred, but that there is an inferior kind of grass land which requires to be converted into arable. It cannot be supposed, however, that the agriculturist will resort to the plough unless he be prompted by interest: and, while the dairy produce and meat are at an exorbitant price, while a multitude of horses for pleasure and other purposes are kept, stock will be coveted, and the grass farmer will enjoy such peculiar advantages, that we cannot reasonably expect that the breadth of pasturage will sustain any considerable diminution. In order *to speed the plough*, the statesman must advert to other circumstances than its immediate operation.

Moy.

Art. VIII. *Egypt;* a Poem, descriptive of that Country and its Inhabitants. Written during the late Campaign. By M. M. Clifford, Esq. of the Twelfth or Prince of Wales's Light Dragoons. Crown 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Evans. 1802.

From the time of Old Homer to the present, the theatre of great warlike atchievements has always been selected by the Muse as the favourite scene of her exertions, from a laudable solicitude of doing honour to heroic deeds, and of entwining the laureat wreath around the victor's sword. We are little surprised, therefore, to find Egypt the frequent subject of modern verse; and still less that a soldier, who from his youth had been accustomed to court the Muse, should solicit her assistance in describing the various objects which were presented to his view, during the late splendid campaign on the Banks of the Nile. This was Mr. Clifford's case: but at uncertain intervals only did he use his pen:

"He left no calling for this idle trade;"

nor, like Horace at Philippi, *relictâ non bene parmulâ*, did he

fail in the duties of his profession as a soldier, in order to rest his fame on his genius as a poet. To some indulgence he is therefore fairly intitled. He wrote under the immediate impression of surrounding objects; and, without affecting peculiar polish, he merely endeavoured to exhibit the natural feelings of his heart. In the precise form in which his poem was first composed, he suffers it to appear before the world:—as his thoughts flowed, 'during the avocations of military duty, in a small tent on the sands of Egypt, amidst the orange groves of Rosetta, or on the tempestuous bosom of the Mediterranean,' so they are now presented to the reader. This apology must excuse the want of high finishing; and perhaps the poem may be more generally impressive and acceptable, from the very circumstances under which it meets the public eye. Independently of these considerations, however, it has merit which would secure it notice and commendation, as our extracts will evince.—It consists of three Cantos, the first of which thus opens with an address to the author's Mistress:

'Come! social nymph, and with thee bear along
The painter's pencil, and the poet's song;
Bring my loved girl, in airy dreams, to range
With me each diff'rent soil, each climate's change;
Inspire my lays, and bid me firmly *bear*
The shock of battle, and the din of *war*.
To you then, mistress of my youthful lay,
Guide of my hopes, and solace of my way,
The Muse, unmindful of the sombre view,
Has strung, with feeble hand, the lyre anew,
And sings for thee, on Egypt's level shore,
Ere haply, doom'd by fate, to sing no more.
Ah! much-lov'd Emma, as the picture flies,
With eager haste, to meet thy radiant eyes,
Say, shall they still, with equal lustre, glow,
Nor bid the tributary sorrow flow
For him, whose inmost thoughts, untutor'd, bend,
To seek for shelter with a softer friend.'

Then follows a description of the scenery of Egypt, with an account of the bravery of our troops, and a tribute to the memory of the lamented Abercrombie:

'Here then begin, where many a burning sun
Has seen the days, in sullen sameness, run:
Where Britain's hardy sons, in long array,
Have toil'd the dewy night, and ling'ring day;
Here, where the sand, in heap'd confusion lies,
Have braved, for many a morn, the angry skies.

A gloomy

A gloomy view; yet still some guardian power
Has sought their welfare, in the dangerous hour,
And smiling Conquest oft has stoop'd to shed
Her laurell'd trophies on the warrior's head.
'Hence let us rove, to seek some happier scene,
Some valleys glowing with a livelier green,
Behold the race of man, through paths unknown,
And make his various manners all our own.
Yet, ere we leave this melancholy spot,
Is not one tender duty still forgot?
Shall not one Muse lament her hero's doom,
And drop the tear on Abercrombie's tomb?
No! tears should ne'er bedew a warrior's grave,
Nor mark the period of the good and brave;
Ah! far removed beyond the scanty praise,
The humble tribute, that my song conveys;
Happy, in death itself; its pangs above,
Who live eternal in a nation's love.
'Eastward we bend our steps; where, wide around,
Extended lakes the level prospect bound;
Where, o'er the waves, Aboukir's turrets rise,
And heap'd beside, the ruin'd hamlet lies;
Whilst, o'er the plains, seen glistening from afar,
The whiten'd bones attest the scourge of war;
When the fierce Turk, to shun a foe too brave,
Sought useless refuge in the whelming wave:
Where too the Briton, 'mid the cannons' roar,
Undaunted stepp'd upon the hostile shore;
Made the proud legions to his valour bow,
And tore Italia's laurel from their brow.
Hence, as we pass along the sea-beat shore,
Man and his works delight our eyes no more;
Hush'd is the scene, save, lightly flitting by,
Oft the hoarse sea-bird gives a mournful cry,
On where one building, on the lonely way,
Receives the wanderer at the close of day.
Dull sets yon evening sun beneath the wave,
That rolls its flood o'er many a Briton's grave,
Or erst by winds, in raging billows toss'd,
Casts his pale corse on Afric's barren coast;
There, while no friend affords the pitying tear,
Nor decks, with modest praise, his early bier,
Shrill screams the vulture for her destined prey,
And fell hyænas sound the knell of day.'—
'But soon the sands of desert Afric end,
And richer Egypt's loamy plains extend,
Where proud Rosetta, on the banks of Nile,
Greets the tired traveller with a constant smile;
There, richly deck'd with sun-reflecting towers,
Fann'd by the fragrance of her citron bowers,

High o'er her head the tall palmetto spreads,
Low at her feet its sweets the myrtle sheds,
Warm round the spot the glowing orange blooms,
And poignant lemons scatter fresh perfumes.
Here, where the sun ne'er darts his ardent ray
On the fresh fountains that incessant play,
The stern Turk watches, with religious care,
The secret harems that inclose the fair;
Through the dark walks the fair Circassians rove,
And youthful Georgians raise the song of love.
Yet not the forms of Asia's captive maids
Breathe pure delight amid these bowering shades;
The jealous eye, that speaks the care-worn breast,
The look of malice, in each glance express'd,
Correct their smiles, and bid illusive art
Usurp the native feelings of the heart.'

The subsequent picture of the beautiful and unfortunate Georgian slave is drawn with skill, in *glowing* colours.—The march of our army on the Banks of the Nile, and the effects of the plague, are thus portrayed:

' Slow on thy banks, our army winds along,
Pride of my verse, and parent of my song;
Thy banks, erewhile with lofty sedges grac'd,
Or palm-trees towering to the distant waste;
Or near some mosque, with varied emblems crown'd,
The lonely cypress throws a shadow round.
Where, in yon deep recess, no straggling gleam
Of sunshine wantons on the placid stream,
A rude boat lies, in which, with parting breath,
Two feeble victims court the hand of death.
Ah! come not near, the dire contagion shun,
Deep in their veins infectious poisons run,
Plague on their tainted breath destructive lies,
And livid venom sparkles in their eyes.
Exiled to die unseen, from mortals driven,
Like him who first sustain'd the curse of heaven;
Exiled by man, who, bent himself to save,
Consigns a friend, or brother, to the grave.
Thus the poor deer, by deep-mouth'd hounds pursued,
Whose fellows drive him from his native wood,
Flies to the stream, to cool his inward fires,
Rolls in its wave, and in its depths expires.'

The second Canto, addressed to Mr. Hayley, is partly historical, and partly descriptive of the different inhabitants of Egypt. Their miserable fate in every age is pathetically rehearsed; and the characters of the Arab, Bedouin, Mamlouk, and Bey, are ably delineated. The following is a well-drawn and living picture of the Bedouin:

' Mark

'Mark, then, yon form! that, with impetuous haste,
Seeks the deep shelter of the sandy waste,
Spurs his fierce steed, to emulate the wind,
And leave the cultivated world behind;
There, whilst around the eddying whirlwinds rise,
And tempests mutter through the lurid skies,
Sudden he hides his solitary form,
And seems the angry genius of the storm;
The savage Bedouin, whose earliest hour,
Spurns the rude grasp of kings, and kingly power,
Mocks their gilt palaces, and crimson'd state,
Born the proud arbiters of human fate:
For him though Fortune builds no legal throne,
His scanty comforts still are all his own;
The milk and fleece his wandering flocks supply,
The camel feeds beneath his guardian eye;
The swift steed, neighing, owns his master's care,
Crops the thin herbage, and inhales the air;
Wide is his range, o'er many a boundless plain,
From Afric stretching to the Indian main,
The wandering tribes extend, in lawless sway,
The hardy children of the god of day.
There where, unknown, the deep Oasis sheds
A partial shelter on their sun-burnt heads,
To where rich Suez, on the golden sands,
Dispenses commerce to more distant lands;
Bids her long trains the sandy Desert brave,
And trusts her treasures to the Eastern wave.
On these wild plains the Bedouin alone
Builds his rude empire, and his wandering throne,
Asserts his rule, and, darting on his prey,
Scares the rich merchant from his toilsome way.'

In the third Canto, addressed to his mother, Mr. C. hails the return of peace, and meditates with satisfaction on the exchange of Egypt for his native country; yet in bidding adieu to this land, so celebrated for its plagues and miseries, he expresses a kind wish for its future happiness:

'Peace gives the world repose, and fondly calls
Her scatter'd children to their native halls:
And, whilst she joyous views her fav'rite isle,
Bids all her sons participate the smile.
Pleased, as my fond imagination strays
Where Thames, in dalliance with his wood-nymphs, plays,
Or softer-bosom'd Vagu mildly yields
Her liquid treasures to Silurian fields,
I too her voice obey; the swelling sail
Yields its full bosom to the favouring gale;
Scarce can my eyes the lessening hills pursue,
And the tall column fades before my view.

Egypt,

Egypt, a long farewell! my steps no more
Shall print, at early dawn, thy sandy shore;
No longer shall I court, at eve's still hours,
Some Muse, yet lingering in thy citron bowers,
And listen to her song; whilst every strain
Invokes the moral genius of the plain.
Lonely he strays, and views, with tearful eye,
Long scenes of horror pass successive by,
Hears his lost children breathe the useless prayer,
And sigh for scenes of bliss they cannot share;
Whilst youthful Pity feels her bosom heave,
And mourns, without the power to relieve.
'Perchance, yet labouring in the womb of Fate,
E'en these sad realms some happier hours await;
Unnoticed Science yet may build her throne
On those same plains, that once she call'd her own;
And, from the world at large, her sons invite,
To bring her hidden stores again to light:
So when some stream, along the meads convey'd,
Neglected, stagnates in a distant glade,
Here its broad arm the bending willow flings,
Dank in the pool the flowery bulrush springs,
From the unwholesome draught the cattle shrink,
And, unrefresh'd, yet linger on the brink;
The shepherd comes, he clears the weeds away,
Again he views the crystal waters play,
Catch the new gleam, and sparkle at the day.'

The present popularity of the subject would excuse our having thus extended our extracts, if the verse of Mr. Clifford had fewer attractions than we think it will be allowed to possess.

To this poem are subjoined five smaller pieces, viz. Asia, an Elegy, written in Marmorice Bay, during the residence of Sir Ralph Abercrombie's Army there in Feb. 1801;—Cintra;—The Leaf;—The Rose;—and The Old Man's Reflections.

The wretched state of society in Asia is feelingly lamented by the author in the Elegy, and contrasted with the happier lot of the inhabitants of the British Isles:

'Ah, country lost to honour, lost to love!
How vain the spicy gale that fans thy coast;
How vain the myrtles that enrich thy grove,
Or the warm roses in thy valleys lost.

'Not here at eve the labouring hind retires,
To share the pleasures of his social cot,
Nor smiling views, beside his little fires,
The cherish'd partners of his humble lot.

'The little tyrant of a fleeting hour
Here dwells in gloomy fear, and sullen state;
Here starts, awaken'd from his dream of pow'r,
To kiss the mandate that awards his fate.

'Yes;

'Yes; though rude storms o'erhang our Northern isles,
Yet Nature wears in them a livelier green;
Pure honour there, and love's domestic smiles,
Congenial spring, to decorate the scene.

'What though thy ivied walls, thy ruin'd towers,
Thy scatter'd hamlets, on the dreary plain,
Might lure young Pity from her classic bowers,
To mourn Oppression's solitary reign;

'Yet here no gleam of worth adorns her song,
No virtue breathes beneath the slumbering clay;
No brighter name, distinguish'd from the throng,
Whose deeds of glory harmonise the lay.

'The fierce defender of a tyrant's cause
Here, restless, seeks awhile a false renown,
Bids Nature hush, and mocks her purest laws,
Then dies, the victim of his master's frown.

'Yet not the awful form, the sinewy frame,
That marks the natives of this Eastern sky,
Was meant to cloke a bosom dead to shame,
Or sink, abash'd, beneath a tyrant's eye.

'Not thus the children of a bleaker clime,
Who feel, in smaller forms, a breast more pure,
Like the firm rock that stands the lapse of time,
More firm from tempests, from attacks more sure.

'Ah, happier climes! if erst when Honour calls,
Thy free born sons rejoice awhile to roam,
With laurell'd worth they seek thy sacred halls,
And add more lustre to their parent home.'

The composition of Mr. Clifford is sometimes prosaic and feeble, and occasionally defective in its rhymes: but it is generally elegant and harmonious. His numbers flow with ease; and the merit of his poetic delineations may be estimated by the characteristic and well-coloured pictures which they present to the imagination of the reader.

Mr. Clifford's description of Egyptian scenes refers to a later period of our exploits in those distant regions, than the interesting and entertaining narrative of Mr. Willyams, which forms the subject of the first article in this Number of our Review; and the one being clothed in the sober garb of prose, and the other decked in the more sportive attire of the Muse, they will perhaps address themselves to different classes of readers. Still, however, notwithstanding these circumstances, there are points of comparison for the employment of the curious inquirer, and passages in each work that may ilustrate and corroborate the representations of both.

G. 2.

Mo. y.

ART.

ART. IX. *Brief Commentaries on such Parts of the Revelation, and other Prophecies, as immediately refer to the present Times:* in which the several Allegorical Types and Expressions of those Prophecies are translated into their literal Meanings, and applied to their appropriate Events: Containing a Summary of the Revelation, the Prophetic Histories of the Beast of the Bottomless Pit, the Beast of the Earth, the grand Confederacy, or Babylon the Great, the Man of Sin, the Little Horn, and Antichrist. By Joseph Galloway, Esq. formerly of Philadelphia in America; Author of Letters to a Nobleman, and other Tracts on the late American War. 8vo. pp. 500. 9s. boards. Hatchard. 1802.

AMONG the numerous attempts which have been made, from an early to the present period of the Church, to unfold and apply the prophecies which are supposed to lie concealed in the Revelations of St. John, Mr. Galloway comes forwards with "full assurance of faith," under the decided conviction that he has discovered the true exposition, and the key which enables him to unlock its treasures to the world. Here, however, we must beg leave to observe that, if an author, following the sage advice of Lord Bacon, would sit down "with wisdom, sobriety, and reverence," to interpret the prophetic parts of scripture, he ought to be first assured of his strength, "*quid valeant humeri, quid ferre recusent*;" and impartially inquire whether he be furnished with those ample materials, and with that knowlege of antiquities, Oriental languages, customs, &c. which can alone render him equal to this arduous task.

Perhaps many wars and many revolutions will arise, to which these supposed prophesies will be fully as applicable as they are, in the opinion of Mr. Galloway, to the present state of France. How often have these mysterious chapters been applied already in former days to the events then occurring; and how often, perhaps, will they have a similar application assigned to them in times to come? The most learned writers on this subject, who have not rejected this composition as spurious, have yet, in general, (we except Sir Isaac Newton,) considered it as a prophetic description of awful events long since impending over the Jews, and which were to "come to pass shortly."—Why should we hastily depart from their interpretation? Peace, however, is at length happily restored to France; and we will indulge the pleasing hope that she will now cease to be the object of hostilities, either from the powers of this world or the powers of darkness; and that she will no longer furnish occasion, by her internal disorders, of being taught out of holy writ the prophetic record of her sins.

It is well known that some of the early fathers were much inclined to doubt the authority of the book of Revelations; and that

that others altogether rejected it. The style, so different from the rest of St. John's writings, and other circumstances, led them to form this unfavourable conclusion.—In the middle ages, it met with a more welcome reception. Then people began to apply these prophesies to their own times; to discover the wrath of God revealed against their adversaries; and to console themselves amid the troubles which surrounded them, by beholding the "signs of the times" depicted in this book. From that period to the present, numbers of expositors have arisen, to each of whom these prophesies have appeared peculiarly applicable to the *existing* state of things, and then acting on their enthusiastic minds with a present impetus. If, indeed, the book of Revelations may justly be allowed to contain something more than wild and beautiful imagery, drawn from an acquaintance with the poetical parts of the old Testament, and from the Jewish compositions; yet we do not see, to speak soberly, that we are furnished with sufficient knowlege to enable us to make a particular application of the prophesies which are here contained.

From the statement which we have thus made, our readers will perceive that it would be afruitless task in us to enter into a minute examination of Mr. Galloway's commentaries. We must first ask him the question of incredulity, and with far better pretensions than the Jews,—"*what sign shewest thou?*" Surely it is fair to inquire what credentials the author brings, to convince us that he has the gift of explaining dark sayings and strange delineations. He *may* be the only true interpreter: but it appears to us to require a *second revelation*, to convince the unbelieving world which particular exposition, out of such an abundance, is alone to be admitted as genuine.—We shall now proceed, however, to give our readers some brief account of the work itself.

The volume consits of six chapters; the first of which exhibits a summary of the prominent events contained in the Apocalypse.—The following quotation will give an idea of the author's plan:

'Before I proceed to the awful task I have undertaken in the title-page, it seems not improper to lay before the reader a *summary view* of the contents of the Apocalypse. It will disclose to him a series of wonderful events, foretold in the first century, and which have come to pass since that time, during the course of one thousand seven hundred years; and in the exact *chronological* order in which they were foretold. It will enable him to judge of the unity, the sublimity, and excellence of this sacred record of the providence of God, and convince him that no power, save a God of infinite wisdom, can be the Author of it. It will, moreover, assist him in his judgment upon

upon the propriety of my explication of the marks and signs contained in it, which refer to the *present times*, and upon my application of them to their proper events.'

Having made some observations on the miraculous success of the church of Christ, as foretold in the Revelations, Mr. Galloway attributes the relapse of Christians into their former state of "discord, war, and blood," to their want of moral rectitude and their distortions of the word of God. Thence he goes on to consider how far he may refer the prophetic description of the last days to the present time.

Chapters 2. and 3. contain the author's application of the prophetic history to the state of the western church, and an account of "the beast of the bottomless pit." This *beast*, it appears, is France, Revolutionary France,—'the Beast of the Earth.'

Here, having glanced at the atheism of those principal authors of the French Encyclopædia, Voltaire, D'Alembert, and Diderot, the author applies to the massacres of the French Revolution, the following passage—"*And they shall have power over waters to turn them into blood.*"

'With what wonderful accuracy has the text, in this sense, been likewise fulfilled, not only in France, but elsewhere! Have we not seen the "peoples and multitudes," the inhabitants of Vendée and Toulouse, and others of that devoted country, at variance with the government, and its abettors; and with more than savage rage assassinating and massacreing one another, giving no quarter, till both land and "waters" have been covered with blood? Yet more, have we not seen the horrid darkness of French anarchy and atheism, overwhelming the different "nations and tongues" in Europe, uniting and compelling them into rebellions, revolutions, and wars, the most cruel and sanguinary; by which millions have been destroyed, and their countries deluged in blood?'

The Seven Vials, an account of which forms a second part of the 3d chapter, are thus briefly explained:

'Under the "first vial of the wrath of God," he foretels the judgments that should be poured out on *revolutionary France;* under the second vial, on *Papal Rome;* under the third, upon *Papal Germany;* under the fourth, upon the king and people of *France;* under the fifth, upon the *republic* and *people* of France, in her *atheistical* state; and under the sixth, upon the *Othman empire*, or Mohammedan apostasy. After this we read no more of the powers of Paganism, Mohammedanism, Papacy, or Atheism, acting in their *separate* capacities, and of their distinct operations against the church of Christ; but, on the contrary, we find that the prophet, under the "seventh vial," begins the history of a new future power, and *grand confederacy, of all of them together,* for the purpose of the utter destruction of the truth, and the word of God.'

Chapter 4th treats of "the Man of Sin, the Son of Perdition," as mentioned in St. Paul, 2 Thess. chap. 2.

'But where shall we find him? The wisdom of all the sages and lawgivers of antiquity, as well as of modern times, have seen the reasonableness and necessity of forming their codes of civil polity upon religion and morality; and these have been derived from a belief in one supreme God, the creator of all things, and in a future state of rewards and punishments. None of them were ever under such delusion and blindness, as to reject the demonstrations of nature, and the irresistible evidence arising from the universal harmony and fitness of things. In vain shall we search, in the past ages of the world, for this monstrous and sinful Power. But we cannot look for it among the present Powers of Europe, without seeing *The Republic of France*, in all her conduct, not only acting up to it in its fullest extent, but excelling, and without shame or remorse, glorying in this very character, and showing herself the only and *exact prototype* of the "Man of Sin."

Chapter 5th remarks on "the Little Horn," as described in the 7th chapter of Daniel. After several observations on what the little Horn could *not* signify, and on the mistakes of former commentatots, the author here asks the following questions:

'Let me then ask, where we shall find a Power, which so perfectly answers to this explanation of the "Little Horn;" a power so *worthless*, so wicked and abandoned, so lost to all that is virtuous and good, so *avowedly* impious in *principle*, and of course so LITTLE in the sight, and so low in the favour of God, as the *revolutionary* power of France?'

The 6th and last chapter treats on "Antichrist," mentioned in the epistles of St. John. Having observed that neither the Pagan powers nor the Mohammedan, nor the power of the Pope, can be here denoted, Mr. Galloway concludes:

'We must then look for "Antichrist" in the *present times*, and if we do not find him here, confess that he is not come. But can it be possible for any serious mind to take a view of the immoral and impious principles and the hostile conduct of the revolutionary Republic of France, against all that has had the least appearance of Christianity, and not to see "Antichrist" here described, standing in the most glaring light before him?'

We have now hastily conducted our readers through the several parts of this work, and given them a glimpse of the light which shines within it. We confess, for ourselves, that we are so *unreasonable* as to require *reasons* for these prophetic applications, and that therefore Mr. Galloway has not been successful in producing any conviction on our minds: but that, notwithstanding all that has been said, we still remain with the Egyptians behind the *Cloudy Pillar*.

Man.

ART.

ART. X. *Observations on the Winds and Monsoons;* illustrated with a Chart, and accompanied with Notes, Geographical and Meteorological. By James Capper, formerly Colonel and Comptroller-General of the Army and Fortification Accompts on the Coast of Coromandel. 4to. pp. 260. 15s. Boards. Debrett. 1801.

THE subject discussed by Colonel Capper in this volume is not less curious than important. A commercial people must be particularly solicitous of obtaining a minute explanation of all circumstances relative to the phænomena of winds: but, in most places, their variable direction and unequal force will present difficulties which must probably long remain unsolved by the philosopher. The sphere of his observation, indeed, seems unequal to the full examination of the subject; since, though the cause generally producing the effect is easily ascertained, yet its varying and complex operation proceeds on so vast a scale, and is so combined also with the influence of other elements, that he must be puzzled in *laying down the law* of the wind, and in stating the reasons for its incessant changes. There are, however, some regions of the globe in which this powerful element moves with some regularity, and presents us with facts which serve to explain the direction of its currents. To these winds, Colonel Capper's attention has been laudably and skilfully directed; and his observations enlarge the view of the subject, contain much information, and are composed with considerable science.

Mo-y.

The theory of the author, however, is the same with that which Bacon laid down, and which Halley has subsequently and more fully maintained. It is simply this:—When the air is rarified by heat, the cold air rushes in and causes a wind.—If the globe were fluid, then winds would tend nearly to the same parts; and the sun continually heating the air at and near the equator, and moving westward, the cold air would rush in from the North and South, and cause North-east and South-east winds. Now place in this ocean an island; then, but from the same cause, *partial* winds will be produced. If, for instance, the soil of the island be more heated than the circumambient water, the current of air will be from the water to the land; or, to speak technically, a sea-breeze will be excited; and if, on the contrary, the air over the water be more heated than the air over the land, a land-breeze will be produced.

These principles are clear, and their general operation may be adequately and easily conceived: but there is a wide difference between the mere conception of a theory, and its application to the solution of natural phænomena; between the

the simple fact of cold dense air pushing rare and heated air out of its place, and the explication of the several currents of air, or winds, as dependent on local circumstances. To the latter point, Colonel Capper's researches particularly refer. A long residence in India, multiplied observations, considerable reading, and mature reflexion, have contributed to aid him in his undertaking; and he has accomplished it, as we have already said, ably and judiciously. We have to complain, however, that the book is in want of arrangement, of connexion, and of a precise statement of the author's theory. We must confess that these deficiencies sometimes occasioned a momentary drowsiness, and the absence of that intimate co-operation with the writer, if we may so express ourselves, which every reader of a scientific work ought to exert. Yet this volume is far from being incapable of producing amusement as well as affording instruction; and the following accounts of hurricanes are interesting not solely from the nature of the subject:

'The next hurricane in succession to that of 1760-61, was in 1763. On the 20th of October in that year, many days after the N. E. monsoon had apparently commenced, the wind began to slacken, and the clouds in the evening appeared uncommonly red, particularly on the day preceding the hurricane. On the morning of the 21st a strong wind blew off the land, and in the course of a few hours flew all round the compass. At this time the Norfolk man of war, Admiral Cornish, with the America and Weymouth, and the Royal Charlotte country ship of four hundred tons, remained in Madras roads, with several other country vessels. The wind began to blow from the N. W. and continued from that quarter for three or four hours, of which time the men of war availed themselves to put to sea, but it then suddenly changed to the eastward, and prevented most of the country ships from following their example. After having blown with incessant violence for fourteen hours, and with almost equal strength from every point of the compass, it at length ceased, but literally left only wrecks behind. All the vessels at an anchor were lost, and almost every person on board perished; but the men of war and the Royal Charlotte returned into the roads on the 24th. The former had felt the gale very severely whilst near the coast, but without sustaining any material injury; the latter vessel likewise, from staying rather too long at anchor, had lost her fore and main masts, and was otherwise much damaged.

'The last of these hurricanes on the coast of Coromandel, which it seems necessary to mention, is that which happened on the 29th of October, 1768. Of this sufficient notice was given, but the officers of the Chatham Indiaman, then in the road, did not avail themselves of it; for on the preceding evening the sea was violently agitated, the sun set in a haze deeply tinged with red, with every other prognostic of a gale of wind. But unfortunately there had been a misunderstanding between the captain and officers, and the

former being on shore, the latter, probably waiting for orders, remained at anchor, notwithstanding they might have put to sea with the N. W. wind, which, as usual at the commencement of these hurricanes, blew off the land. The governor and council, who foresaw the danger even time enough to have prevented the loss of the ship, ordered signal guns to be fired with shot, by way of directing the officers to weigh anchor and stand out to sea; but either they did not hear the guns, or were too punctilious in waiting for orders, and in consequence of this inflexibility were lost, for the ship was never seen or heard of after the close of the evening of the 29th. It is possible they were not able to distinguish the signal guns, for many of the inhabitants of the fort, during the violence of the hurricane, did not hear them, and the flashes of the guns might be mistaken by the officers of the ship for those of lightning. The vessels, lying at this time at a single anchor in the open road of Pondicherry, were not in the least disturbed by this hurricane; neither were the effects of it in the smallest degree felt at any of our settlements to the northward. Ships which put to sea in due time very soon get beyond their influence to the eastward, and it is very well known that they never extend far in-land. All these circumstances properly considered, clearly manifest the nature of these winds, or rather positively prove them to be whirlwinds, whose diameter cannot be more than 120 miles, and the vortex seems generally near Madras or Pulicat, where a branch of the Ballagat Mountains extends towards the sea. Those which happen in the N. E. monsoon generally fall with most violence within a few leagues of this place, and never, I believe, reach to the S. of Porto Novo.'

R.W.

From these and other similar occurrences, the Colonel makes the following conclusions:

'It seems very clear, that hurricanes never happen at the breaking up of the monsoons, nor precisely at their commencement, but rather some time after the change, and that they are local and of short duration. But this description of them is not confined to the Malabar coast, nor to that of Coromandel, they rage with equal if not superior violence in the southern hemisphere, particularly about the latitude of 20 degress S. near the French Islands, where many ships have been in great danger of perishing from their effects, amongst the rest the Ilchester Indiaman, in the year 1757. But the most accurate and authentic account, which I have received of hurricanes in these latitudes, was that of the hurricane which the Britannia Indiaman encountered in the year 1770. On the 10th of March, about midnight, the wind suddenly burst upon the ship from the S. E. and blew with considerable force, but shifted all round the compass in the course of a few hours. Between five and six in the morning a sudden gust carried away their topmasts and gib boom, when lying to under a balanced mizen; and nearly about the same instant the jolly boat, hanging over the side by the mizen chains, was suddenly whirled up into the mizen shrouds, whence it fell into the sea, and was dashed in pieces. The wind having blown nearly with equal strength from opposite quarters, prevented the sea from rising

rising, so that at the end of ten hours, when it subsided, the sea bore but very little appearance of having been violently agitated.

'The following day, the rigging being repaired, they proceeded a few leagues to the westward, and met a French vessel that had not felt the hurricane; they were likewise overtaken by another ship which had followed the same track as the Britannia without suffering the least inconvenience from it. These circumstsnces prove positively, that in an east and west direction, this hurricane had not extended above 30 leagues, and likewise that the ship was nearly in its centre.

'Thus then it appears that these tempests or hurricanes are tornadoes, or local whirlwinds, and are felt with at least equal violence on the sea coast, and at some little distance out at sea. But there is a material difference in the situation of the sun when they appear at different places. On the coast of Coromandel, for example, they seldom happen, particularly to the northward, except when the sun is in the opposite hemisphere. On the Malabar coast they rage with most violence during the monsoon, whilst the sun is almost vertical. Near the island of Mauritius they are felt in January, February, and March, which may be deemed their summer months. And in the West Indies, according to Mr. Edwards's History of Jamaica, the hurricane season begins in August and ends in October.

'As they happen, then, in different places at different seasons, they cannot well be ascribed, like the monsoons, to any particular situation of the sun in the ecliptic; neither, as they do not happen regularly every year, can they be deemed periodical. But as during their continuance the wind blows all round the compass, and nevertheless is not felt in any direction at a distance of more than sixty or eighty miles, we may venture to conclude that whirlwinds are solely owing to violent and sudden changes, both in the upper and lower regions of the air. When the lower regions of the atmosphere are from any cause considerably rarefied, and the air in those of the upper at the same time becomes very much condensed, according to the principle of gravity, the air in the upper regions will descend, and necessarily cause a whirlwind, perfectly similar to that produced by sinking a heavy body in water; the parts adjacent will immediately concentre to a point, and rush with a whirling circular motion towards the bottom with great violence.'—

'Another extraordinary circumstance respecting these hurricanes should likewise be mentioned, as tending to a discovery of their causes; that they most frequently, it might perhaps with propriety be said always, occur near large bodies of land, but are not known at sea within the tropics, at least in that part of the ocean remote from the continent, or even at a considerable distance from extensive islands. It is a well known fact, as the name itself implies, that the Pacific Ocean is exempt from tempests. So likewise is the middle of the South Atlantic Ocean, particularly from the equator to the latitude of 16 degrees. A violent gale of wind, for instance, was never known at the little island of St. Helena, which lies at the distance of nearly a thousand miles from the west coast of Africa, and still further from the eastern coast of America. The mean tempera-

ture of St. Helena is, I believe, 72 degrees instead of 79, which is the mean temperature of places on the continent, in the same parallels of latitude; but the variations there throughout the year, both of the thermometer and barometer, are very trifling. It must here be again remembered, that the vapours raised from the ocean have a larger portion of both common and electrical fire, and are, therefore, more firmly supported in the form of clouds than those which come from the land; that in these oceans an equal temperature almost constantly prevails, and that all the circumambient air is filled with homogeneous vapours. In every wide expanse of ocean, therefore, unbroken by a continent or extensive island, no sudden changes are likely to take place in the atmosphere; but, on the contrary, where the clouds, which are formed by exhalations from extensive bodies of land, approach those which are derived from the ocean, violent and sudden alterations must necessarily occur; for, as it has been frequently before remarked, the land clouds will attract both common and electrical fire from those clouds, which come from the ocean, until the equilibrium is restored; and during this operation such changes must necessarily happen in the atmosphere, as will produce strong currents of air, and in general whirlwinds. Near every part of the continent of Asia, in the Gulf of Bengal, on either coast of Africa near the island of Madagascar, and even in the vicinity of the islands of Mauritius and Bourbon, where also there are volcanoes, whirlwinds occasioned by sudden changes in the atmosphere will, at certain seasons, frequently occur. But in the Pacific Ocean, and in the central parts of the North and South Atlantic, they will seldom happen. Ships in crossing the North Atlantic scarcely ever meet with hard gales of wind before they approach the Western Islands, where likewise there are volcanoes. But in the islands of Bermudas, which are situated in the North Atlantic Ocean, about the latitude of 32 degrees N. and at the distance of six hundred miles from the coast of America, hurricanes, I believe, are almost unknown, but thunder and lightning, with temporary gusts of wind, or violent squalls, are very common. Were these islands of less extent, or had they been placed within the tropic, it is probable they would have been as exempt even from tempests as St. Helena, or the islands in the Pacific Ocean; but situated in the temperate zone, and not very remote from America, they are subject occasionally to sudden and violent gusts from the N. W. which probably originate on that continent. The Bermudas, however, enjoy a delightful climate, not unlike the finest weather of an European spring, or the early part of summer; whence, probably, they derive their name of the Summer Islands.'

Mo-y.

In order to prevent confusion, the author makes an alteration in the names of seas, gulfs, &c.; or, more properly speaking, fixes by definition the particular seas, gulfs, &c. which he understands by the names here assigned to them. He likewise forms a new distribution of the winds, viz. into the perennial, the periodical, the topical, and the general. It is, however, remarkable that, after having quoted two erroneous definitions

definitions of monsoons, and stated the necessity of distinguishing between the trade wind and the monsoon, the Colonel does not inform us precisely what the latter wind is. Neither do his remarks concerning the common and electrical fire residing in clouds, &c. altogether please us: his expressions are indistinct and loose; and we suspect that they refer not to any just and philosophical theory. R.W.

The notes to this volume are very copious and very valuable: the slight deviations from the strictness of philosophy are compensated by the regular predominancy of good sense: if the matter be sometimes irrelevant, it is almost always curious; and the digressions are to be pardoned for the pleasures of variety to which they lead. We may be allowed to leave a while the straight road, when there is no danger of being lost in the mazes of error.— From these notes, we shall make a quotation which respects, not the Asiatic continent, but our own country, and which contains *General Meteorological Observations made in England*:

'Those who are furnished with proper instruments, and who carefully observe the information they afford, will not often be mistaken in their judgment of the changes of the weather. The barometer, the thermometer, the hygrometer, and the electrometer, will generally give us timely notice of any material changes in the state of the atmosphere. But before we consider the best, or at least the usual modes of employing these instruments, we will beg leave to mention some common remarks of the peasantry, whose professions requiring them to live much in the open air, their opinions merit very great attention, being the result of local observation, continued from father to son, and verified from the experience of many ages. Amongst the first of these is one, now established into a proverb, that a rainbow in the morning is the shepherd's warning, but the rainbow at night is the shepherd's delight.

'In a country with the sea or ocean to the westward, and the wind from the same quarter, this opinion is likely to be true; for at least nine-tenths of the rain in a country so situated would come from that side. If, therefore, the clouds to the westward in the morning are saturated with moisture, which they must be to produce a rainbow, as these clouds proceed from the W. towards the E. they probably will produce rain; whereas, on the contrary, when the sun sets perfectly clear, and the clouds to the eastward are moist, it is a proof that the wet clouds are past, with a westerly wind, and the shepherd therefore may reasonably expect fine weather on the following day.

'When it rains with an east wind, it probably will rain for twenty-four hours. This is another observation, which seems to me applicable to countries situated, as above mentioned, with land to the eastward; for in general the weather is dry in these countries with an east wind, but when the cohesion of the air and water is broken, the rain will not be violent, but of long duration.

'The weather generally clears at noon, but when it rains at midday, it seldom clears up again till sun set. The air, when dry and warm, continues to absorb and retain the moisture continually evaporated from the earth; as therefore the sun advances towards the meridian, and for an hour or two afterwards, he dries and warms the air, and consequently the rain is likely to cease at that time. But if there should be so much water in solution in the atmosphere, that the heat of the sun is not sufficient to produce these effects, in that case the rain will probably continue some hours longer.

'Violent winds generally abate towards sun-set.

'If we admit that wind is only a current of air put in motion by the rarefaction of the atmosphere in some particular place, and that this current of air is moving towards the point of rarefaction to restore the equilibrium, we must suppose, that as the Sun declines the rarefaction will diminish, and consequently the velocity of the wind decrease. But this observation, in my opinion, rather applies to the temperate than to the torrid zone; for in whirlwinds and hurricanes the contrary may very often occur.

'When the wind follows the course of the sun, it is generally attended with fair weather. This frequent and regular change of wind, which is never more than a moderate breeze, proves that there is no point of considerable rarefaction near, and, therefore, the current of air follows immediately the Sun's course: it always happens in summer, but very seldom when the sun's meridian altitude is less than 40 degrees.

'The changes which take place in the atmosphere are principally marked by the rising and falling of the barometer, which appa ently is caused by heat and cold, the hands with which nature performs her meteorological operations: by the former the atmosphere is rarefied, and consequently becomes light; by the latter it is condensed, and consequently becomes heavy. Hence probably the old remark, that a storm generally follows a calm; for during a calm the air is rarefied and expanded, and the cold air will rush forward in a strong current to restore the equilibrium, and necessarily produce what is generally called a gale of wind, the violence of which also will of course be in proportion to the degree of the preceding rarefaction.

'For these reasons, the barometer falls suddenly whilst the air is expanded before a gale of wind, and rises again gradually as the condensed air returns, and the gale in like manner by degrees subsides.

'It must however be observed, that an extraordinary fall of the mercury will sometimes take place in summer, previous to heavy showers of rain, particularly if attended with thunder and lightning; but in spring, autumn, and winter, the sudden extraordinary descent of the barometer indicates principally violent wind.

'Upon these principles likewise we may account for the rise and fall of the barometer in the different zones. In the torrid zone, particularly at St Helena and the islands of the Pacific Ocean, it seldom varies more than three-tenths; at Madras about five-tenths; in the south of Europe not more than one inch and two-tenths; in England it varies two inches and a half, and in Petersburgh three inches four-

four-tenths. In the two first the temperature of the atmosphere is not subject to much variation, and never to any great degree of condensation. In the third, reckoning from the tropics to the latitude of 40, the atmosphere may sometimes be suddenly condensed by currents of cold air from the N. and still more so in England. But the greatest variation must necessarily take place on the continent to the northward, where, during the summer, the weather is as hot as within the tropics; and, in winter, the thermometer, for many weeks, continues several degrees below the freezing point.

'The thermometer also, which measures the degree of heat in the air near the earth, will contribute towards denoting when changes are likely to take place in the lower regions of the atmosphere; the hygrometer distinguishes the quantity of moisture in the atmosphere, and the electrometer will point out the quantity of electricity which prevails in it.

'The words generally engraven on the plates of the barometer rather serve to mislead than to inform, for the changes of the weather depend rather on the rising and falling of the mercury, than on its standing at any particular height. When the mercury is as high as Fair, or at 30 degrees, and the surface of it is concave, beginning to descend, it very often rains; and on the contrary, when even the mercury is at 29 degrees, opposite to rain, when the surface of it is convex, beginning to rise, fair weather may be expected. These circumstances not being known, or not duly attended to, is the principal cause that farmers and others have not a proper confidence in this instrument.

'It must also be observed, that, *cæteris paribus*, the mercury is higher in cold than in warm weather, and commonly early in the morning, or late in the evening, than at noon, which seems occasioned by the obvious causes of the atmosphere being condensed by the cold of the night, and rarefied by the heat of the day.

'The following observations of Mr. Patrick seem confirmed by experience.

'1. The rising of the mercury presages, in general, fair weather, and its falling foul weather, as rain, snow, high winds, and storms.

'2. In very hot weather the fall of the mercury indicates thunder.

'3. In winter the rising presages frost; and in frosty weather, if the mercury falls three or four divisions, there will certainly follow a thaw; but in a continued frost, if the mercury rises, it will certainly snow.

'When foul weather happens soon after the falling of the mercury, expect but little of it, and, on the contrary, expect but little fair weather when it proves fair shortly after the mercury has risen.

'5. In foul weather, when the mercury rises much and high, and so continues for two or three days before the foul weather is quite over, then expect a continuance of fair weather to follow.

'6. In fair weather, when the mercury falls much and low, and thus continues for two or three days before the rain comes, then expect a great deal of wet, and probably high winds.

'7. The unsettled motion of the mercury denotes uncertain and changeable weather.

'But to these remarks may be added, that, when the barometer suddenly falls two or three-tenths, without any material alteration in the thermometer, and the hygrometer is not much turned towards moist, a violent gale of wind may be expected. When the hygrometer inclines far towards moist, with only a trifling descent in the barometer, it denotes a passing shower and little wind; and when the barometer falls considerably, and the hygrometer turns much towards moist, the thermometer remaining sationary, and rather inclined to rise than fall, both violent wind and rain are likely to follow in the course of a few hours.'

The reader may find the hints contained in the above extract very useful, since they may suggest when he ought and when he ought not to incumber himself with a great coat.

Mo-y. See pp. 80, 82, 84, 85.

ART. XI. *The True Lover of his Country;* or a Treatise on Sovereignty, with respect to its Origin, its Object, its Functions, and its several Modifications; with a concise Description of the Revolutions of the Roman Republic, of the Kingdom of England, and more particularly that of France. By M. Clemence. 12mo. Dulau and Co. &c. London.

REVOLUTIONS in politics, like reformations in religion, excite the most ample and spirited discussions. The old system, however reprobated and rejected by the majority, is sure of finding some staunch advocates, who will endeavour to counteract the decisions of the sword by the efforts of the pen; and to compensate for the want of success by the energy, if not by the excellence, of their argument. Of this number is M. Clemence; who apprehends that, though for the present "the field be lost, all is not lost;" that, though France has banished the monarch and declared against monarchy, her conduct is not to be justified in the eye of reason; and 'that the true lover of his country must wish for the return of the antient system, in preference to republicanism in any shape.'

The author's object is laboured with great address. The proposition which he is desirous of establishing, in favour of monarchy, is made to result from a series of preceding propositions; and if he seems to decide for the *divine right*, it is done in such a manner as to create the least possible disgust. He first demonstrates that man is an animal born to live in society; then, that all men are born more or less unequal; and hence he proceeds to establish the necessity for a sovereign authority, and to consider its legitimate source. Here, after having defined sovereign authority to be 'a power of making laws, and of punishing those who have the temerity to infringe or break them;' and having premised that the Deity alone is the primitive source of all authority; he ingeniously infers that

the

the right of one or many to govern arises from the order of his providence, and that he gives masters to nations as ministers of his justice and mercy. In the Chapter on the origin of Civil Societies, he inclines to the Filmerian hypothesis; and in the following, on the Hereditary Right of Lands and of Crowns, he contends that the right of the latter case is established on the same principle as that of the former. With this argument, the doctrine of the next chapter is completely in unison: viz. 'Revolt is never permitted;' and he thus reasons on this subject: 'The first of all laws is, that particular interests should give way to the general interest. An injustice committed by the sovereign is a particular and temporary evil; resistance to authority, and rebellion, are general and permanent evils, because they attack public order, on which depends the safety of all.'—It may be observed, by the advocates for resistance against tyrannical oppression, that neither of these asertions is true. We shall not however stop to comment here, but proceed to the author's chapter intitled *the Limits of Sovereign Authority*; from which we shall make an extract that will completely develope his principles:

'A prince who exceeds his authority, does not lose it; and hence it is not permitted for the people to arm themselves against him. Subjects have not the right of declaring war against their sovereign, who alone can dispose of the public force. They must therefore confine themselves to negative resistance; they must, in refusing to concur in the execution of illegal orders, preserve the habit of submission in every thing which is not evidently contrary to the constitution of the state; for, in doubtful cases, he who is in possession of authority ought also to have the presumption in his favour. We must not forget, that the prince is the father of his people; and we, as dutiful sons, should not suffer ourselves to resist with open force the unjust will of a father. After having employed prayers, remonstrances, and protestations, there is nothing left to subjects, but to wait the redress of the wrongs of which they complain, either from the prince being better counselled, or from his successor.

'But if the prince employs the public force only to oppress the people, if he arbitrarily disposes of estates, honours, and the lives of citizens, if, in a word, he governs like a tyrant, is it necessary to keep within the bounds of a mere negative resistance? will it not be permitted, in case of a lawful defence, to oppose force to force, and to overthrow an authority, the abuse of which would be so manifest and intolerable?

'Happily, in Europe, and in all modern governments, there are neither Caligulas or Neros. The maxims of a religion which only breathes mildness and humanity, the general spirit and public manners, the political and commercial relations of different states, the distinctions and acknowledged rights of the different orders of society, oppose an insurmountable barrier to that overflow of tyranny. Principles are not made for cases that we cannot foresee. But if it happen,

pen, that God, in his anger, places upon the throne such a monster, then I will say with Narbal in Telemachus, where he speaks of Pygmalion, whom history represents as the most execrable tyrant, "For myself, I fear the gods, whatever misfortunes they may send to try me, I will be faithful to the prince whom they have placed over me; I had rather he would take away my life, than I should attempt his, or be backward in defending him." There also remains a remedy more lawful and less dangerous than revolt, which is, to give to that weak or furious prince a tutor who should govern in his name. This measure would assure the public tranquillity, and preserve the respect due to royalty. The law, which in hereditary monarchies, names a regent for the minor king, is applicable in all cases, when a sovereign shews himself incapable of governing.'

Fortunately for us, we have established a different doctrine in Great Britain, from that which maintains that there is nothing left to subjects but to submit with prayers and tears to their oppressors. It would be as absurd to make a law for revolt, (since, as Blackstone observes, "no human law will suppose a case which must destroy all law,") as it would be impolitic and wicked to scatter the seeds of disaffection to established authority among the people. It is a wise maxim of our constitution, that *the King can do no wrong;* for we cannot contemplate him as doing wrong without supposing the annihilation of law, or a state of anarchy. When, however, a nation is thrown into a state of anarchy, the *necessity of the case*, as Blackstone farther remarks, supersedes all law; and leaves to the people an undoubted right to interfere for the restoration of order. Should the throne become vacant, the people must of necessity redress themselves. Since, however, cases of this nature are extremely rare, they need not be brought into discussion: but, when despotic and slavish principles are maintained, the subjects of free governments will justify their conduct and assert their rights.

The chapter on the different parts of Sovereignty, and their extent, is concluded with a consolation to those who are oppressed with slavery, similar to that which Mr. Burke administered to those who were afflicted with poverty:

'To preserve in every state good order, and that harmony which is necessary to their reciprocal welfare, men must submit to men, weak like themselves, and, like them, subject to error. It is impossible to discover any single form of government that is not liable to many inconveniences. In endeavouring to avoid the dreadful evils of anarchy, we sometimes run a risk of falling into slavery. By living without government, we become ferocious and savage: sad condition of humanity, but the admirable wisdom of Providence, which leaves us here below but for a few moments, will shortly deliver us from this transitory life, and grant us another which will never

never have an end, where man will be no longer in subjection to man, governed only by sovereign goodness.'

The general object of this treatise is to display the advantages of pure monarchy, and to shew how dangerous it is to suffer the people to possess authority: in the prosecution of which design, the author appeals to the annals of Rome, of England, and of France. Reviewing history for this express purpose, the intelligent reader will anticipate the nature of M. Clemence's comments on the records of our own country. What will the high-spirited Commons of Great Brititain say to the following account which he gives of them? 'To this day, when the King of England judges it proper to call his Parliament, he commands the Lords to assemble themselves to give him their advice; and he orders the Commons to hold themselves ready to submit to what will be determined by him and his Lords.' Where did M. Clemence make this curious discovery?

The observations on the history of the French revolution conclude with a hint to Bonaparte; which, though formed with art, will probably be unsuccessful:

'Torn to pieces at home, surrounded by enemies abroad, France was like a vessel beaten about by the tempest which is sported with by the winds and waves whilst waiting for a skilful pilot to come and save it from inevitable shipwreck. Happy, a thousand times happy would it be, if he who now holds the helm would, for the happiness of France and tranquillity of Europe, place it in the hands of its true and legitimate master, who might, by his wisdom and prudence, put an end to the dreadful misfortunes of anarchy, and restore repose to a country filled with affliction and mourning!'

In order that this work may at once be read by both nations, it is printed in alternate pages of French and English.

Mo-y.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For SEPTEMBER, 1802.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 12. *A Sketch of the Life and Character of Lord Kenyon*, late Lord Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench. 8vo. pp. 40. 1s. 6d. Spragg. 1802.

THE distinguished person, who is the subject of this sketch, was raised to the Chief Justiceship of England in the year 1788, and retained that elevated station till the time of his death; which event happened at Bath on the 2d of April 1802. The character here delineated is faithful in the outline, but by no means finished in that style of excellence which we could have wished, and which the original

ginal merited. The features are exact; and, if we required nothing but resemblance in a portrait, we should be satisfied on this occasion: but the light and shade are ill managed, and the colouring is deplorable. To speak without a metaphor, the ideas introduced into this pamphlet are natural and just, the sentiments reflect credit on the writer, and both the praise and the censure bestowed on Lord Kenyon are appropriate: but the language is inelegant, and the structure of the sentences is extremely objectionable.

With the following passage, however, we were much pleased, and to the truth of the remark we entirely accede:

'Other Chief Justices may have been profounder scholars; the decisions of justice may have been adorned with more graces of eloquence, and more luminous variety of illustrations; others have been more distinguished as political characters, but I believe there never lived a Lord Chief Justice, who more completely possessed and deserved the confidence of the public. Implicit confidence is more than is due to any man; but confidence in moral worth, in sterling integrity, in tried abilities, and sincere regard to religion, was what Lord Kenyon eminently enjoyed. The nation at large were more than satisfied with him; they reposed in him with a filial confidence that the great interests of morality, property, reputation, and marriage were safe where Lord Kenyon presided. Lord Kenyon was one of those truly great minds, which are superior to all affectation, even the affectation of knowledge. If he was ignorant, or but slightly informed on any subject which came before him, he never had the littleness to pretend to know it. He was always very desirous of receiving the assistance of those who, from their peculiar profession, employment, or situation, were likely to be better informed than himself; and thus on the ground of adequate knowledge to do substantial justice.'

Of this modest and unpretending disposition, we once heard a singular instance from one of the party. The subject of Mr. Wilkes's edition of Theophrastus was introduced; and Lord Kenyon observed that Mr. Wilkes had obligingly sent him a copy, but, as the work was printed without a Latin translation, it had imposed on him the necessity of purchasing another edition, because he was unable to read it without such assistance.—In addition to his other great qualities, Lord Kenyon possessed a tenderness of nature and a simplicity of manners which have been rarely equalled: while his integrity as a Judge was incorruptible, and was never influenced by any considerations of the rank or dignity of the persons who came before him.—To do justice, strict impartial justice, was his object and his effort:

" ———*Cui pudor, et justitiæ soror*
Incorrupta fides, nudaque veritas."

We shall close this short article with a character of his Lordship which appeared soon after his promotion to the Bench. " Lord Kenyon may not equal in talents or eloquence the prominent character whom he succeeds on the Bench of Justice; nevertheless he possesses qualities more appropriate to, and knowledge more connected with, the important office which he holds. Profound in legal erudition, patient in judicial discrimination, and of the most determined

mined integrity, he is formed to add no common lustre to his exalted station. He does not sacrifice his official to his parliamentary character; the sphere of his particular duty is the great scene of his activity, as of his honour; and though as a Lord of Parliament he will never lessen his character, it is as a Judge he looks to aggrandize it." In that hope and that endeavour he greatly succeeded. S.R.

Art. 13. *Public Characters*, 1800—1801. 8vo. 9s. Boards. R. Philips.

Art. 14. *Public Characters*, 1801—1802. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. R. Philips.

Of the two preceding volumes of these biographical notices, we gave some account in the 30th and 32d Volumes of our Review, N.S. We have now only to inform our readers that the work proceeds, according to its first design; that it seems to improve as it advances with time; and that these 3d and 4th Volumes contain a considerable number of memoirs of persons (our contemporaries) who figure in the moral, the political, and the scientific walks of society.

The discussion of living characters, it must be remarked, is a difficult and delicate task; and in the execution of it, the authors of this work may perhaps have acquitted themselves with as much success as may reasonably be expected: but, if the old maxim of *speak not ill of the dead* be observed, can we expect that more than the *bright side* of the *living* shall be exhibited? especially when we consider that so much of the information here given must be derived from the subjects themselves, or from their friends. Prejudice or partiality must, in general, be too dominant in such compositions.

ARTS.

Art. 15. *Essays on Gothic Architecture.* By the Rev. T. Warton, Rev. J. Bentham, Captain Grose, and the Rev. J. Milner (with a Letter to the Publisher.) Illustrated with Twelve Plates of Ornaments, &c. selected from ancient Buildings; calculated to exhibit the various Styles of different Periods. The Second Edition. To which is added, A List of the Cathedrals of England, with their Dimensions: also two new Plates. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Taylor. 1802.

We are not surprized to find that the first edition of these Essays (of which we gave some account in M. R. Vol. xxxiv. p. 88. N. S.) has been favourably received by the public; and we announce this Second Edition as still more intitled to its patronage. The two additional plates, one containing an interior view of Durham Cathedral and the other of Westminster Abbey, are given in order to exhibit and illustrate the different character and effect of the circular and of the pointed styles of antient English Architecture. The list of the Cathedrals of England and Wales, with their admeasurements, including those of Old St. Paul's and Westminster Abbey, is a Supplement; for which Architectural Students and others will feel themselves obliged to Mr. Taylor, since it saves them the trouble of consulting many books, and brings together into one view the real and comparative magnitude of our noblest sacred structures.

The additions are sold separately, price 2s. 6d. to accommodate the purchasers of the First Edition.

Mo.y.

EDUCATION.

Art. 16. *Lexicographia-Neologica Gallica.* The Neological French Dictionary; containing Words of new Creation, not to be found in any French and English Vocabulary hitherto published; including those added to the Language by the Revolution, and which now form the Supplemement to the Fifth Edition of the French Academy's Dictionary, printed at Paris in 1798: with the new System of Weights, Measures, and Coins. The Whole forming a Remembrancer of the French Revolution, as comprising a short History of it, and a View of the Republic, with Anecdotes, &c. &c. By William Dupré. 8vo. pp. 311. 7s. 6d. Boards. R. Philips.

To those who have not observed the course of the French Revolution with more than ordinary attention, to younger persons, and to those of the rising generation who may be led to peruse histories of the late great events in France, and the publications of the period, this work will be found an useful and necessary companion. The catalogue, however, needs not have been so large, since many of the terms here explained never procured even a *temporary* general adoption.

In order to give our readers some insight into the nature of the author's design, and into the manner in which it has been executed, we shall make a few extracts:

'ATTACHÉ, s. m. a servant. Mon *attaché* is now generally used in France instead of mon valet de chambre, mon laquais, mon garçon, &c. (Le ministre public de France fit son entrée à Gênes, précédé de deux *attachés*, portant habit de citoyen et la cocarde nationale tricolore au chapeau, &c.—The public minister of France made his entry into Genoa, preceded by two *servants*, dressed in the habit of a citizen having the three-coloured national cockade in his hat, &c.)'

'JACOBIN, s. m. a Jacobin; a name given to the member of a society of the people, established in the year 1789, in the old convent of the Jacobins, Dominicans, or white friars, at Paris. The same name has been given to the societies connected or affiliated with this Paris club; as well as to such individuals, not joining any society, as have professed similar principles.

'The society of *Jacobins* called themselves the friends of liberty and equality; they corresponded with the other clubs, not only in France, but in every country where societies of the like kind were to be found. The number of these clubs in France was not less than twelve hundred, and the whole amount of these societies was thought to be sixty thousand; they formed together a political confederacy, uniting in one point, of a nature the most alarming to the established governments of Europe ever known.'—

'The French *Jacobin* societies, which governed and directed the national convention, many of the deputies to which belonged to the principal club at Paris, proved a most cruel scourge to the people. They were for reducing and levelling all ranks and fortunes to an equality;

equality; at length its members being guilty of every enormity under Robespierre, the club fell with him, or rather in consequence of his fall. Robespierre was executed by the guillotine on the 27th of July 1794, now celebrated as a feast under the name of the 9th Thermidor, and the society of *Jacobins* was abolished in November following.

'An address from a section of the city of Paris to the national convention soon after this horrid society was dispered, has the following passage, which shews the detestation in which it was held by the people.—You ought to mark out those men of blood, those devouring vultures, fed with human flesh under the sanguinary government of Robespierre and the *Jacobins*; the club of *Jacobins*, that den of wild beasts in the capital, from whence humanity was driven away as being aristocratical, and reason as counter-revolutionary.'

'MUSCADIN, s. m. this appellation has taken place of the French words petit maître, adopted by the English, and long used by both nations to denote that effeminate, conceited, selfish being, which we likewise style a fop, or fribble.

'Though this kind of inoffensive animal, which it should seem is found in France of the female gender, does not owe its origin to the revolution, which has certainly produced both men and women of undaunted resolution, unshaken courage, and indefatigable perseverance, it undoubtedly owes its present name to it, which is far more expressive of the qualities and properties of these creatures than the former denomination of petit-maître, and seems derived either from the sweet wine called muscat, that powerful odour, musk, or those delicate words (paroles musquées) which usually issue from their perfumed lips.'

In future times, curiosity will perhaps be much gratified by consulting this record of ephemeral peculiarities; and at the present moment, considerable amusement and information will be afforded by it to a great number of readers. Jo.

Art. 17. *Hints on the Education of the Lower Ranks of the People*; and the Appointment of Parochial Schoolmasters. Respectfully submitted to the Proprietors of Land in Great Britain. By George Chapman, LL. D. 12mo. 6d. Muir, Edinburgh; Cadell jun. and Davies, London.

It is confessed by Dr. C. that he 'could never see the wisdom or the humanity of that plan which condemns the lower classes of the people to ignorance:' but he is convinced of the policy of extending towards them the advantages of instruction; and he adduces the example of Scotland, where schoolmasters for the benefit of the poor are appointed by act of parliament in every parish, to prove that, though the common people in this part of Great Britain have thus been better educated than the poor of England, they have not been less but rather more decent, orderly, and obedient.

The depreciation of the value of money having rendered the salaries of the Scotch schoolmasters, as settled by the act passed in the reign of king William, anno 1696, inadequate to their present support, Dr. C. recommends this subject to the consideration of the public;

and he is of opinion that the plan of parochial schools, established by Parliament, should be extended to every part of Great Britain. His scheme combines industry with instruction, and equally consults the virtue of the poor and the comfort of the rich. Mo.

Art. 18. *The New Speaker, or English Class Book:* consisting of I. Moral and Instructive Essays. II. Narrative and Pathetic Pieces. III. Dialogues. IV. Orations and Harangues. V. Epistles. VI. Miscellaneous Pieces. VII Select Poetical Varieties. To which are prefixed, a short System of Rhetoric, and an Essay on Enunciation or Delivery, chiefly abstracted from Blair's Lectures. For the Use of Schools. By William Mavor, LL. D. Author of the British Nepos, &c. &c. 12mo. pp. 423. 4s. 6d. Boards. Wallis.

Art. 19. *Classical English Poetry*, for the Use of Schools, and Young Persons in general. Selected from the Works of the most favourite of our National Poets, with some original Pieces. Compiled and written by Dr. Mavor and Mr. Pratt. 12mo. pp. 429. 4s. 6d. Boards. R. Philips, &c.

The task undertaken by Dr. Mavor alone in the first of these works, and by him in conjunction with Mr. Pratt in the second, is by no means so easy as it is generally imagined to be. To discharge it properly, the compiler must have an extensive acquaintance with polite literature, be well versed in criticism, and possess correct taste, with a mature judgment. Specimens of what is most perfect should alone be submitted to the attention of youth: but too many pieces, which are undeserving of this character, have been admitted into both these collections, to intitle them to our unreserved commendation. Even the title-page of the second work raises unfavourable prepossessions. Had the full force of the term *classical* been familiar to the authors, they would scarcely have applied it to a compilation of which their own compositions make so considerable a part; and the insertion of which they justify on the ground of contrast. The editors here forget the object of their labours; which are designed for young persons, and not to suit the eye of finished judges. Besides, the variety for which they contend is perhaps better attained by collecting together pieces in the various sorts of poetry, than by an assortment of those of widely different merit in the same class.—Typographical correctness is also of the utmost importance in books of this nature; and we are sorry to discover, in the volumes before us, so many instances of inattention to this department.

In the short system of rhetoric, the principles should have been more illustrated by examples; for these, alone, speak plainly to the minds of young persons. Abstract definitions imprint on them no distinct ideas.

If, in a literary view, these volumes are liable to criticism, they are free from all exception in what regards morality and religion; since they contain nothing of an improper, or even of a dubious tendency. Jo.

Art. 20. *Historical and Miscellaneous Questions, for the Use of Young People.* 12mo. Printed at Stockport; sold by Longman and Co. London.

Publica-

Publications of the class of that now before us are well adapted to fix the principal facts of history in the memory of young persons: but, unless they are drawn up with accuracy, they will propagate error in the form of knowlege. This work, though in general useful to tutors and scholars, requires in several places to be corrected. In p. 41. it is said that the word *Punic* was applied to the Carthaginians 'for their shameful breach of faith.' The fact is that *Pœni* and *Punicus* are corruptions of *Phœni*, Phenicians, of which people Carthage was originally a colony *. There are other mistakes which we have not leisure to enumerate.

Moy.

Art. 21. *The Juvenile Travellers;* containing the Remarks of a Family during a Tour through the principal States and Kingdoms of Europe, with an Account of their Inhabitants, Natural Productions, and Curiosities. By Priscilla Wakefield. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Darton and Harvey.

The travels of the younger Anacharsis may have suggested the idea of this work, which contains a pleasing epitome of the Grand Tour, and may be read with advantage by many grown ladies and gentlemen. Much, however, as we approve the efforts which are now making to instruct the rising generation, we rather doubt the propriety of inviting very young persons to play the part of old Ulysses, by wandering through various states and kingdoms, in order to survey their customs, laws, and institutions. It is evident that the mind must acquire a considerable portion of knowlege, and be ripened to a maturity of judgment, before it can derive any important profit from this species of instruction. Giddy and inexperienced youth are not capable of benefiting much by foreign travel; and the author before us exhibits characters not altogether natural, when she makes children write letters to each other, containing accounts of the manners, &c. of different countries. The work, however, may be considered as a very instructive kind of novel, including a view of the European States and Kingdoms, compiled from Brydone, Coxe, Moore, Radcliffe, Southey, and Thicknesse; and it may be so far of use to young persons, that it may extend their views to other countries than their own, and prevent those inveterate national prejudices which result from ignorance, or from a narrowed and ill-conducted education.

D.o

Art. 22. *A Concise English Grammar*, for the Use of Schools. By the Rev. B. Willis. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Mawman.

As far as Etymology and Syntax are concerned, this grammar may be advantageously used in schools: but the author does not appear to have kept that good company which qualifies a man to lecture on Pronunciation. We should be sorry to have our children taught to pronounce diamond as if it were spelt *dimun*, yes, *yis*, business, *busness*, old, *ould*, bolt, *boult*, &c. Such, however, are Mr. Willis's directions; and therefore, while he evinces his intimate knowlege of the grammatical structure of words and sentences, he at the same time discovers his incapacity for instructing the English scholar how to read them with propriety.

D.o

* Hence the word was applied to the Carthaginians long before the Romans accused them of treachery.

CHEMISTRY *and* MINERALOGY.

Art. 23. *Analytical Essays towards promoting the Chemical Knowledge of Mineral Substances.* By Martin Henry Klaproth, &c. &c. &c. Translated from the German. 8vo. pp. 591. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies.

In our 22d vol. N. S. p. 271, and vol. xxv. p. 379, a very full account of this work has been given from the original, and it would therefore be superfluous to enter into a particular view of its contents on its present appearance. We must, however, do the translator the justice to observe, that he appears to have executed his task with judgment and fidelity; and that the book will probably be acceptable and very useful to those chemists who are not acquainted with the German language. Hatch

Art. 24. *The New Chemical Nomenclature,* selected from the most distinguished Modern Writers on Chemistry, designed for the Use of Students in Pharmacy, Druggists, Apothecaries, and others. By C. Pye, Chemist. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1802.

This little work will be found useful by chemical students, and the other descriptions of persons mentioned in the title page, for whose assistance it is designed. Do

Art. 25. *Elements of Chemistry.* By J. Murray, Lecturer on Chemistry, &c. &c. 2 vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Printed at Edinburgh; and sold by Longman and Rees, London.

The first volume of this publication is divided into two parts, exclusive of the introduction.—In part I. the author treats of Chemical Operations and Instruments, of the Laws of Chemical Affinity, of Caloric (to which he seems to have paid much attention), and of Light, Electricity, and Galvanism. In the second Part, we find the Simple Gases, and afterward their Combinations with each other, considered; and then follow the Inflammable Bodies, together with their binary compounds.

In the second volume, the Metals are enumerated and their Properties described; after which follow the Earths, and some Remarks on the Analysis of Mineral Waters. Part 3. comprehends the Vegetable and Animal Substances. Here, the Formation, Principles, and Changes of Vegetable Bodies are first noticed; and, in a similar order, the whole is concluded by an Investigation of the Origin, Nature, and Decomposition of Animal Matter.

The work is creditable to the author, and will be serviceable to the reader. Do

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 26. *Facts decisive in favour of the Cow-Pock;* including an Account of the Inoculation of the Village of Lowther. By Robert John Thornton, M. D. &c. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1802.

A considerable part of this volume is occupied by an Account of Inoculation for the Small-Pox; a practice which, as it could never be rendered universal, Dr. Thornton considers as having proved, on the whole, rather an injury than a benefit to the public. He has also given a short history of Dr. Jenner's great discovery, and a view of the

the facts on which it is now decisively established. As these have been frequently laid before the public, we shall decline a repetition of them here.

The cases of Inoculation for the Cow-pox, in the village of Lowther, are minutely detailed. They agree, in every respect, with those related by other Vaccine Inoculators, and confirm their experience. Dr. Thornton seems to have been very active and successful in promoting this practice, in the northern part of the kingdom. Fer.

Art. 27. *Essays on the Diseases of Children, with Cases and Dissections.* Essay I. Of Cynanche Trachealis, or Croup. By John Cheyne, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

This publication, of which the first number only has yet appeared, is very superbly printed, and illustrated with elegant coloured engravings of the diseased parts implicated in this formidable complaint. The beauty of the work is indeed its chief recommendation; since, although the author has given several cases of the disease, from his own practice, he has added little or nothing to what has been observed by previous writers. He considers the croup as an inflammatory complaint, and treats it on the plan which was formerly called antiphlogistic, before the exile of phlogiston took place. General and topical bleeding, emetics, blisters, purgatives, and warm-bathing, are the remedies which he principally recommends. He has used calomel, without success.—With most other practitioners, he conceives that the cases described by Dr. Millar were not instances of genuine croup, but of asthma.—Much evil has arisen indeed, we fear, from confounding these diseases together.

We shall be glad to see this work continued; and it would be well if the present taste for fine books could be always directed to such useful objects as in this instance. D.o

Art. 28. *Engravings of the Arteries*, illustrating the Second Volume of the Anatomy of the Human Body, by J. Bell, Surgeon; and serving as an Introduction to the Surgery of the Arteries. By Charles Bell, Surgeon. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

These elegant and accurate delineations of the arteries must not only facilitate the knowlege of anatomy, but create a taste for it in the most fastidious student. Respecting the difficulty of conveying a just idea of the general structure by drawings, we meet with some very sensible observations in the preface to the present volume:

'I am very averse from the ideas most prevalent regarding anatomical tables, that it is impossible to make a true representation of the parts from any individual body: for as we see, in looking over the variety of anatomical tables, that those which have the characters of the parts distinctly marked, and have been evidently drawn from the parts dissected and laid out before the artist, are in greatest esteem for the accuracy of the anatomy, and best bear the only true test of excellence, the immediate comparison with the subject in the dissecting room; so on the other hand, those made by first drawing the outlines of the parts, and then doing in the vessels, are plans merely

in which the character of the parts, and the peculiar course and turnings of the vessels, are lost.

'But I hope I shall not be understood to say, that if a drawing be made accurately from the subject, it will therefore answer all the purposes required. Of twenty bodies, not one perhaps will be found fit for drawing: but still I conceive that we are not to work out a drawing by piecing and adding from notes and preparations; we are to select carefully, from a variety of bodies, that which gives largeness of parts, where the characters of parts are well marked, and where there is the most natural and useful distribution of vessels. In making our drawings of such dissections, let us allow ourselves no licence, but copy accurately. By noting in the description any little deviation, every necessary end is answered.

'By long attention to the subject, I hope that I have been able to make these plates simple, intelligible, and accurate: while the design of this book of plates is to present to the student, at one glance, the general distribution of the vessels, and to fix them in his memory in a way which no description can accomplish, it will be found to give the most usual distribution of the branches; for I have been careful in the selection of my subjects.'

We have seen no work better calculated for giving clear ideas on this important branch of anatomy; and we strongly recommend it to our medical friends, as at once a very useful and a highly ornamental addition to their libraries. D°

Art. 29. *A Continuation of Facts and Observations relative to the Variolæ Vaccinæ, or Cow Pox,* By Edward Jenner, M.D. F.R.S. &c. 4to. 2s. 6d. Law, &c. 1800.

We must apologize to our readers, for having accidentally overlooked this sequel to Dr. Jenner's publications on this most important subject. It relates chiefly to those cases of spurious vaccine, which were accompanied with pustular eruptions, and which at one time embarrassed the friends of the new inoculation to a considerable degree. This point is now completely settled.

Dr. Jenner mentions, among the advantages of the Vaccine Inoculation, that it has no tendency to excite scrophulous affections: while the activity of the Small-Pox in giving rise to scrophula is too well known.—We cannot conclude this brief notice better than with the last paragraph of Dr. Jenner's pamphlet:

'The scepticism that appeared even among the most enlightened of medical men, when my sentiments on the important subject of the Cow Pox were first promulgated, was highly laudable. To have admitted the truth of a doctrine, at once so novel and so unlike any thing that ever had appeared in the annals of medicine, without the test of the most rigid scrutiny, would have bordered upon temerity; but now, when that scrutiny has taken place, not only among ourselves but in the first professional circles in Europe, and when it has been uniformly found in such abundant instances that the human frame, when once it has felt the influence of the genuine Cow Pox in the way that has been described, is never afterwards at any period of its existence assailable by the Small Pox, may I not with perfect

perfect confidence congratulate my country and society at large on their beholding, in the mild form of the Cow Pox, an antidote that is capable of extirpating from the earth a disease which is every hour devouring its victims; a disease that has ever been considered as the severest scourge of the human race!' D.o

Art. 30. *A Dissertation on the Extraordinary Attributes and inherent Virtues of Fixed Phlogistic Earth*, first discovered at Venice by Dr. Innocenzo Della Lena, of Lucca: &c. &c. 8vo. 3s. Glindon.

This pamphlet is nothing more than an advertisement of a quack-medicine; and it is the dearest morsel of the kind that we have lately seen. The powers ascribed to the medicine are prodigious, and remind us of My Lord Peter's infallible powder of *Pimperlimpiness*, in the Tale of a Tub.

We must admire the author's ingenuity, however, who not only saves the duty on advertisements by appearing in a pamphlet, but contrives to get a few shillings into his pocket, from unwary purchasers, into the bargain. D.o

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 31. *A Sketch of the Denominations of the Christian World:* accompanied with a Persuasive to Religious Moderation: To which is prefixed, an Account of Atheism, Deism, Theophilanthropism, Judaism, Mahometanism, and Christianity, adapted to the present Times. By John Evans, A. M. Master of a Seminary for a limited number of Pupils, Pullin's Row, Islington. Fifth Edition. 12mo. pp. 240. 3s. 6d. Boards. Crosby. 1801.

An account formerly given of this publication will be found in our xxth vol. N. S. p. 105. It had then attained a second edition: during the time which has ~~passed~~ elapsed since that period, it has passed through others, of which this, as is said in the title page, contains considerable additions and improvements. The volume, as also a *sequel* which soon afterward appeared, obtained our hearty commendation, and that commendation we still readily allot. That a work of the kind is desirable and grateful to the public is, we think, clearly evinced by its rapid and continued sale; and the author has exerted himself to enrich his volume, which abounds with extracts, and (though not faultless) is rendered both amusing and instructive.

Some readers may be inclined to ask, whether we are to form our idea of the *Greek* church from the practice of the Russian lady, who in her excursions was attended by a silver *crucifix*, in a separate carriage, which she honoured or disgraced according to the success or disappointment resulting from her schemes and engagements. Such instances of superstition and folly are not wholly confined to the Greek or the Latin church: something of similar barbarism, in different ways, may appear in that which is called Protestant, or Reformed. The little anecdote, however, and not improperly, diversifies the volume; as also does a very circumstantial account, under the article *Baptists*, of the public administration of baptism by immersion, at a river

near Cambridge, not many years ago: the ceremony, as here related, was conducted in a serious, orderly, and decorous manner.

The *Theophilanthropists* appear here to greater advantage than has been sometimes allowed them.—When we take a general view of these several distinctions, and particularly of the Christian sects, the motley catalogue, as Mr. Evans terms it, presents, as he also remarks, but a melancholy picture; yet in most, possibly in all of them, may be found people of sense and ability, or of real worth. The tribe of *Jumpers*, of whom we have before heard, we regarded, not as a distinct division, but as a few of a large party, who launched out more remarkably into some methodistical *extravagancies*: equally with them, perhaps, *grunters* and *groaners* might be admitted as a sect: but it is well judged to expose what may be the weakness and folly of some and the art of others. The variety of opinions prevalent among men has, no doubt, its use; it certainly opens a wider scope for the exercise of a benevolent and candid spirit, to which purpose our author does not fail to apply it. The concluding pages of the volume may justly be recommended to the careful perusal and attention of all poor persons: happy will it be if Christians of every sentiment will heartily embrace the well founded inferences and instructions, which are here with great propriety and earnestness presented!

As Mr. Evans has improved his work, he seems also to have improved his style; his book is, in general, well written: but defects, or marks of negligence might be pointed out. In p. 82, a saying ascribed to Clement the 14th, well known by the name of Ganganelli, is related so imperfectly that, though the general meaning may be apprehended, the sentence remains obscure: but this may be an error of the press; and still smaller inaccuracies detract not from the merit of the volume. Hi.

Art. 32. *A Summary View of the Nature and Tendency of Sunday-Evening Lectures*, in the Parish Churches of populous, or large manufacturing Cities and Towns, &c. 8vo. 6d. Crosby. 1802.

Many very sensible and convincing observations and arguments are here offered, relative to the establishment of Sunday Evening Lectures on church of England principles, under the patronage and regulation of the parish ministers and the subscribers to the institution; particularly in populous cities and towns. The author's reflections on this important subject certainly merit the serious attention of the public, and especially of those who are alarmed at the progress said to have been made (p. 12.) by '*ungoverned zealots* which exist among us.'

LAW.

Art. 33. *Review of the Statutes and Ordinances of Assize*, which have been established in England from the fourth year of King John, 1202, to the thirty-seventh of his present Majesty. By G. Atwood, Esq. F. R. S. 4to. pp. 90. 5s. Egerton. 1801.

'The first ordinance,' according to this writer, 'for fixing the price of bread in England (as far as appears from authentic records) was established by proclamation in the fourth year of King John, A. D. 1202,

1202, as we are informed by Matthew Paris, in whose annals this ordinance is recorded: it is also inserted (probably copied from the last-mentioned author) in a collection of Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Norman laws published by the Rev. David Wilkins, S. T. P. This very imperfect regulation of assize continued in force little more than sixty years; for in the year 1266, in the 51st Henry III. it was repealed by the statute of assize made in that year. By this ordinance, the baker was allowed the expences incurred in converting a quarter of corn into bread, at a fixed sum of money, together with a profit in corn or bread, which was adjusted to a more adequate proportion, and with fewer numerical mistakes, compared with the regulation of assize which was superseded by it. The beneficial provisions of the statute 51st Henry III. in a practical view, and the advantages the public derived from it, sufficiently appear from the long period of time in which it continued to regulate the prices of bread, during great vicissitudes of plenty and scarcity: affording a proportion of profit which the baker was well contented to accept, and the consumer paid without murmur or complaint.'

It is observable that, in different periods of our history, other articles of consumption have been subjected to an assize; the prices of ale and beer were fixed by the above statute of Henry III. and afterward by an ordinance in the 23d year of Henry VIII. The price of hay was regulated by law in the latter end of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, when an assize was established for innholders, vintners, and butchers; and an assize for the sale of fuel took place at the same time. All these restraints, excepting those which regulate the price of bread, have long since been abrogated; and there are not wanting persons who think that even the price of bread might be left to find its own level, depending on the supply and demand for it, with great advantage to the public. This opinion was more than once intimated by the late Chief Justice of England, who conceived the measure of an assize rather pernicious than beneficial. Mr. Atwood, however, entertains contrary sentiments, and observes 'that many reasons seem to have concurred in opposing such a departure from the practice of our ancestors, confirmed by the uniform experience of many centuries.'

In this tract, many curious particulars will be found relative to the construction of tables of assize, the different prices of corn at different periods, and the money allowances proportioned to the general price of provisions, and the depretiation in the general value of money.

Mr. A. declares that, 'in the ensuing review of the statutes and ordinances of assize, it is not intended to offer any opinion respecting the proportion of allowance or profit which ought to be granted to the manufacturer of bread; but merely to state with precision, what the amount has actually been according to preceding regulations, and what it is according to the laws now existing; also to point out the principle on which these allowances have been given, distinguishing those which are apparent and avowed, from others which are either concealed from the public knowlege, or are less distinctly expressed.'

In the prosecution of this object, Mr. Atwood has exercised a spirit of patient inquiry; and he has communicated to the public much useful knowlege on subjects that deserve serious consideration. S.R.

POETRY.

Art. 34. *The Free School*, a Poem. 2d Edition. To which is added an Elegy on the Death of Edmund Jenney, Esq. of Bredfield; and of Philip Bowes Broke, Esq. of Nacton. The former of whom died, after a severe illness, on August 22d, 1801; and the latter, suddenly, on the Day following. By the Rev. John Black. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

If the account which has been transmitted to us be correct, Mr. Black has been so very hardly treated, that we should be sorry by any asperity of remark to add to his troubles. With a large family, a wife who has been bed-ridden four years, and only a curate's income, how cruel would it be to take from him the Free School at Woodbridge, in order to bestow it on a Batchelor who has a living of 500l. a year! We hope that the decision of law will be in the curate's favour. Under the present frowns of fortune, however, Mr. B. is not altogether without resource:

" Supremely blest the Poet in his Muse."

He makes the Free School a subject of verse, and rhymes in spite of poverty and the lawyers:

' While *mea regna* I behold,
I'll rule, a king, *de jure*, bold:
Still let the lawyers spill their ink,
Still let them bite their nails, and think—
Let their subpœnas round me fly,
Rex puerorum still am I:—
Let Discord still inflate their lungs,
Still let them brawl with thund'ring tongues—
False informations let them bring—
Or in—or out—I still will sing.'

In kindness to Mr. B. we recommend to his consideration, as a classic, Horace's injunction respecting poems—*dulcia sunto*. The word *bulgent* is an ugly creation.—The line ' And busy *yeo* and windlass jar,' is extremely hobbling and inelegant; and ' While many a sight and many a sound *diffuses*,'—and ' If thou *had*,' are instances of bad grammar.

If he would please the public, a poet should be very difficult in pleasing himself.

Art. 35. *The Conjunction of Jupiter and Venus in Leo*, on the 29th of September 1801 a happy Prelude to a Propitious Peace. A Poem.—Mercury's Apology for the Curate's Blunder, an Impromptu; addressed to the Right Hon. the Earl of Yarmouth; and other Poetical Pieces. By the Rev. John Black. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

Astrological notions are not now sufficiently in fashion, to enable the poet to excite either hope or fear from the conjunction of Jupiter and Venus Yet the wish for peace must be always acceptable to a good Christian; and whether Jupiter and Venus be in conjunction or opposition, he will say amen to Mr. Black's prayer;

' Sweet

Sweet smiling Peace! from heaven descend!
Let War's loud clangours quickly end!
And Independence bring with thee,
With Order, Law, and Liberty!'
Let man in man a brother find;
And Concord's chain the nations bind.'

The thought is benevolent, but it might have been expressed in more correct and finished poetry.

Art. 36. *London, a Poem,* Satirical and Descriptive; illustrated with *Notes*. 12mo. Scott. 1802.

We have heard that the late ingenious Mr. George Stevens, commonly called "Shakspeare Stevens," said, when speaking of the celebrated *Pursuits of Literature*, that "the Poetry only served the author as *pegs* to hang the notes upon."—Something like this may be remarked of many subsequent productions, and also of the present smaller and less important performance; in which we find a variety of striking *notes*, satirical, political, and moral. If these be worth particular notice and preservation, (as we think many of them are,) it may not be deemed very important to inquire of what sort of *wood* the *pegs* are made: any thing will do for such lines and couplets as

'While polish'd manners gild the modern stall,
And Thames-street wears the colours of *Pall-Mall* *;

and,

'The general hum of *bu-si-ness* resounds:'

also,

'Sure vast Perus these *august* schemes support.'

For *August*, read *April*.

In his preface, the author observes that he has neither emulated Johnson nor imitated Gay, both of whom made choice of LONDON as a subject for the display of their poetic powers. This is modest, and very true: here is no comparison: but it must, nevertheless, be allowed that the present writer has manifested a considerable share of good sense, and knowlege of the world; with just strictures on what he thinks to be *wrong*, and proper *hints* as to what he deems *right* and fit to be done in the way of reformation.

Art. 37. *The Tears of Hibernia! dispelled by the Union.* A Poem. By William Thomas Fitz-Gerald, Esq. 4to. 1s. Stockdale.

To the benevolent politician and Christian, Ireland has long presented a very melancholy subject for contemplation. With all her faults, she has been "more sinned against than sinning;" and if she has not made that progress in civilization which has distinguished her sister island, the failure has been owing to her misfortunes and to the defective government under which she has been placed. Statutes of oppressive severity † have extended their iron rod over the major part

* The name of this street is never pronounced so as to form a rhyme to *stall*.

† Englishmen will scarcely believe that there once existed a law in Ireland which prohibited a Roman Catholic from riding a horse of more

part of her inhabitants; and no pains were taken to remove the ignorance and depravity with which they were reproached. Hence we cordially wish that it may be said, *Jam nova progenies cælo demittitur alto;* and that the Union of Ireland with Great Britain will be the means of bringing the former under the operative influence of a more generous and enlightened policy. This is the happy consequence which Mr. Fitzgerald apprehends. He contemplates Hibernia, in the midst of a most tremendous storm, standing on the Giant's Causeway; and, as she beholds her vales manured with blood, heaving a sigh and pouring forth her lamentations. As she is execrating the memory of Elizabeth and Cromwell, and deploring the late Rebellion, Britannia comes to her relief, informs her of the Union, of his Majesty's paternal care, and of the close friendship in which the sister islands were in future to be bound. The storm then ceases, angels attest the contract, and with the following cherubs' song the poem thus concludes:

"The Island Queens shall rule the subject main!
In friendship bless'd, secure from foreign yoke,
The Irish harp shall grace the British oak!
Strong be the roots, and verdant be the tree,
The pride and bulwark of an empire free!
And, as an off'ring, in its hallow'd shade,
Be fears and jealousies for ever laid!
Oblivion to HIBERNIA'S sorrows past,
And may the happy UNION ever last!"

Neither the plan nor the sentiments, nor the poetry, of this composition, will disgrace the author; and the whole is too short to tire the most lazy reader.

Art. 38. *Pitt and his Statue;* an Epistle to the Subscribers. Also Lord B— and his Motions, &c. &c. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Walker.

Fond as we are of a good hearty laugh, we are never disposed to visit Wapping and St. Giles's, in order to indulge in this recreation; and though we have no objection to have a prime-minister lashed by the satiric Muse, whenever he deserves it, we cannot approve of the task being performed with grossness and vulgarity. *Est modus in rebus.* Wit should not run riot, and jump over all bounds; nor should satire degenerate into coarse abuse. True it is, Master Peter, that thou dost not sustain the honour of the castigating Muse. Do not mistake us, however, we are not *subscribers;* thou hast not "*galled*" us. So far from being in the number of the worshipers of the *heaven-born* ex-minister, we are ready to admit that his public life afforded thee opportunities of playing on him some spirited and lively satire; that the *Statue,* in particular, was a fair subject for thy pen; and that thou hast humorously furnished materials for the inscription which the pedestal ought to contain: but

---

more than five pounds value: if five guineas were offered by a Protestant for the animal worth one hundred, the disqualified Catholic was compelled to make the sale, and endure the insult.'

thou

thou afterward descendest to the very bathos of satire. Thou art strictly within the bounds of thy profession, when thou thus describest the contents of the lines which are to be engraven beneath the ex-minister's image:

'There shall we see the name of WAR,
That many a soldier sends, and tar,
To sleep with their *still* fathers and *still* mothers;
For WAR, though seeming very *dread*,
By knocking thousands on the head,
Makes comfortable elbow-room for *others*.

'In letters, too, all large and fair,
OLD BAILEY on the eye may stare;
Where JUSTICE, with her sharpen'd shears,
Has lopp'd off many a liar's ears.

'In letters, too, superb and *bold*,
The name of INCOME-TAX be told,
That made so many millions *blest*;
And *eke* of poor old PENNY-POST,
That gave so sweetly up the ghost,
T'oblige the gaping Treas'ry's chest.'

These lines will be read with a smile, which is not kept up by recommending Jack Ketch to give Pitt a *halter*, to *swing* him at Newgate, or to *flog him at the cart's tail.*

We have also *another crow to pull with thee*, Master Peter. Why is thy Muse so frisky and *cloacinean?* The pun on Lord B.'s *Motions* made us turn away our noses; and as for the Baker's wife's little *oven*, it is too hot for us. In truth thou may'st as well let these things alone. Thou, however, wilt probably reject our cold advice, and wilt tell us that we are a set of old stupid codgers who have outlived our days of fun, while thy *imagination* still enjoys its pristine vigor; and that thou art resolved, whether thou attackest Monarchs, Bishops, or Prime Ministers, to manifest thy partiality to rosy lips and dimpled cheeks. If this be thy determination, we must leave thee to thy devices.

Mo.y.

POLITICS.

Art. 39. *The true State of the House of Correction in Cold Bath Fields*, in the County of Middlesex, and also of the New Prison in the Parish of Clerkenwell, fairly examined. To which is subjoined a Sketch of the real Character of Mr. Thomas Aris, Governor of the House of Correction. By a Middlesex Magistrate. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1802.

In the consideration of any important question on which a difference of opinion is entertained, it is proper for every individual, but particularly for a Reviewer, to exercise the greatest caution. Whether the house of correction in Cold Bath Fields has been properly or improperly governed, whether its regulations are to be praised for their mildness and expediency, or to be reprobated for their needless rigour, are points on which a difference of judgment notoriously exists; and no subject, of late years, has occasioned warmer

disputes, or has been applied to more invidious purposes. For our own part, we are perfectly ready to discharge our duty by receiving evidence on either sides, and reporting its result to our readers.

With regard to the pamphlet before us, the first circumstance which strikes us is that it is anonymous, and therefore not intitled to implicit confidence; next, that, if it really proceeds from a *Middlesex Magistrate*, and if there be any thing reprehensible in the conduct of the prison, this writer must be considered as *particeps criminis*, and his production must be viewed with suspicion. He states himself to have been a member of the former committee for the regulation of the house of correction, but for particular reasons, to which he indirectly alludes, he and some of his friends ceased to belong to it. He admits that some of the rules, which have of late been introduced, are injudicious, and attended with bad consequences; and he particularly instances 'the feeding the prisoners from without the walls.' Before this measure was adopted, a spirit of industry was encouraged among the prisoners, and they were rewarded in proportion to their labour: many examples of which are here adduced. The admission of state prisoners is also represented as extremely detrimental to the interests of the house; and the author recommends visiting justices, instead of a committee. He concludes his pamphlet with the following observation:

'If the house of correction had never been applied to any purposes but its own—if the laws respecting the care, the maintenance, the instruction, and the employment of the prisoners had been strictly attended to—it is my firm belief that no place of confinement in this kingdom, (allowing for the far greater proportion in the number of the prisoners) would in these seven years have exhibited more instances of reformation and amendment, of health and comfort, of industry and good behaviour, than the house of correction for the county of Middlesex under the care and management of its present governor.'

All this, however, is hypothetical: but it admits the existence of present evils, which the author does not impute to the governor, whom he represents to be of unimpeachable integrity, and incapable of either extortion or cruelty towards his prisoners. S.R

Art. 40. *Address to the Magistrates and People of Great Britain and Ireland*, occasioned by the alarming System of Modern Imprisonment adopted in some of the Prisons in Middlesex, Gloucester, Essex, Salop, Nottingham, York, Dorset, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 54. 2s. Ridgway. 1802.

This is a declamatory pamphlet, from which no useful information can be collected. The author treats Mr. Aris as if he had been convicted of extortion and cruelty, but he states no facts; indeed, he does little more than call names. When he represents an individual as 'torture-master-general to the subjects of Great Britain,' and says that the bread furnished to the house of correction 'is in some measure a type of himself (Aris), as heavy as his fetters, and as black as his heart, he annihilates all expectation of impartiality and accurate statement.—He is not more favourable to the dead, than to the merits of the living: for example, we have the following portrait of

Mr.

Mr. Akerman, the late governor of Newgate, who maintained not only an irreproachable but a meritorious character; 'Mr. Akerman has been by some people esteemed a man of humanity.—I knew him well: he was a tyrant, a coward, a fool, and a coxcomb.' *—Even the sacred name of Howard is not safe from the malignant aspersions of this anonymous reviler, who intimates an opinion that this benevolent Being visited the abodes of human wretchedness from no other motive than the *pleasure* which he derived from witnessing scenes of misery and of horror; and he has the effrontery to add: 'whether Mr. Howard intended to introduce secret tortures into the system of solitary confinement, I know not; but I blush for the weakness of that government, which could adopt such a system of imprisonment at the recommendation of a wandering enthusiast, and continue it for the benefit of a brutal tyrant.' S.R.

Art. 41. *Considerations on the late Elections for Westminster and Middlesex;* together with some Facts relating to the House of Correction in Cold Bath Fields. 8vo. pp. 86. 2s. Hatchard. 1802.

We have here a work of a very different nature from the preceding; and though the censure which it inflicts on conspicuous characters is severe, yet it is supported by argument, and expressed in the language of moderation and temperance. The writer objects to the conduct of Mr. Fox and Sir Francis Burdett on the late elections for Westminster and the County of Middlesex; and he gives such reasons for his objections as, though they may not carry conviction to the mind of every reader, will not discredit the author in the estimation of any dispassionate person. He examines the question relative to the government of the House of Correction, with apparent fairness and impartiality; and he observes that 'it is to be regretted, (and none have more feelingly regretted it than the magistrates of Middlesex,) that this prison was ever appropriated to uses for which it was not designed, and that prisoners of a different description from those for whom it was originally intended, should have been confined in it. Under this character, amongst others, state prisoners and the mutineers are included.'

The author then accounts for the introduction of these characters; and, after having examined different passages in the report of the committee, he states the question in the following satisfactory manner:

'The point on which satisfaction will be required, is not, it is presumed, whether the arrangement, regulation, and management of the prison, are defective, and that they are so in various respects I freely admit, but whether that system of severity, inhumanity, cruelty, and torture, with which the conduct of the prison has been stigmatized, is or has been practised in it, and this I positively and directly deny.'

As the name of Mary Rich is probably familiar to most of our readers, and as her case has been compassionated by many, and was presented by the Grand Jury of the county as reflecting on the con-

* Mr. Kirby, the present keeper of Newgate, is however much praised by this writer.

duct

duct of the magistrates, we shall quote the opinion of the committee, formed on the examination of the evidence:

'From the above examination, your Committee are of opinion that Mary Rich was properly treated during her confinement, and that every necessary care and attention had been paid to her by the Governor and the Doctor, and that she had lived better since she had been in the prison than in her usual mode of living with her father and mother.'

Of the votes of the Millers, which came in so questionable a shape, the following account (which we have reason for believing to be correct) may be acceptable to our readers:

'On th 27th July, 1801, a number of persons formed themselves into a society, under an agreement, to purchase a small piece of ground, whereon to erect a mill for grinding corn, for the purpose of supplying the subscribers with bread and flour, at their own houses, at prime cost; in consequence of which, a piece of ground was some time after found suitable for the purpose; and on the 13th October, 1801, (not before,) an agreement was entered into between the owner of the ground, (which is less than a quarter of an acre,) and a part of the society, that the owner, on being paid, or security being given to his satisfaction, for payment of £.360, should convey the premises to certain persons on the part of the society. In consequence of this agreement, made the 13th October, 1801, the society was suffered to take possession.

'The mill on the 30th July was not completed, nor had any profit been derived from it; nor had any conveyance then been executed. The mill, it appears, by private agreement between the subscribers, is to be divided into one thousand and two shares, at two guineas each, and every person so sharing claims a right of voting for the county of Middlesex.

'Upon this exposition of the case, two plain questions arise.

'1st. Whether *the payment of forty-two shillings* for a principal share in a free-hold property, as described, can be assumed as creating that qualification to vote which the law prescribes, that is, *a clear annual value of forty shillings*, over and above all deductions.

'2dly. Whether the voters had actually possessed or received a clear rent or profit to this amonnt, for twelve calendar months before they polled.

'Of the persons entering into this compact, three hundred and seventy appeared to vote for Sir Francis Burdett, and of course took the prescribed oath, *that they had acquired a freehold property of the clear annual value of forty shillings, over and above all deductions, rents, and charges, payable out of or in respect of the same, and that they had been in the actual possession or receipt of the rents and profits thereof for their own use twelve calendar months.*'

We have read this pamphlet with pleasure; the sentiments which it expresses do credit to the understanding and the feelings of the writer; and we recommend it to the attention of those whose political attachments and opinions are of a different complexion.

S.R.

Art.

Art. 42. *Report of the Proceedings during the late contested Elections for the County of Middlesex;* including the State of each Day's Poll, with the Address and Speeches of Messrs. Byng, Mainwaring, and Sir Francis Burdett, Bart. with many other interesting particulars. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

A compilation from the news-papers, &c. arranged by some ardent friend of Sir Francis Burdett. G. 2.

Art. 43. *The Speech of Sir Francis Burdett, Bart.* in the House of Commons, 12 April, 1802, on a Motion for an Inquiry into the Conduct of the Administration at Home and Abroad, during the War. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway.

This speech is here given in the first person, but we are not told whether it is published with the authority of the Honourable Baronet whose sentiments and expressions it is stated to convey. The fate of the motion which it preceded is well known. D.°

THANKSGIVING SERMONS.

Art. 44. Preached at Armthorpe, Yorkshire, June 1, 1802. By John Whitehouse, Rector. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies.

The wisdom of prosecuting the late war with patience and firmness, and the promising circumstances under which the peace was concluded, are alike maintained by this preacher: while he contemplates with satisfaction the moderate and temperate policy of the French Government, and the re-establishment of the national worship. After having congratulated his countrymen on the peace, he extends his good wishes to our late enemies. Mo-y.

Art. 45. By R. Potter, A. M. Vicar of Lowestoff and Kessingland, and Prebendary of Norwich. 4to. 1s. Longman and Co.

Being disabled by age and infirmities from addressing his parishioners from the pulpit, Mr. Potter preaches to them on the present occasion from the press. Much of his sermon, however, though very just, is not very appropriate. He reprobates innovation, and contends for *things as they are.* D.°

Art. 46. Preached at Barnstaple. By the Rev. Richard Taprell. 4to. 1s. Mawman.

While Mr. T.'s sermon is set to the good old tune of Peace and Plenty, he endeavours to gratify our national pride by recounting the many splendid naval victories which distinguished the late war: but the pleasure which arises from the contemplation of victories must be greatly abated, when we peruse his black list of the evils inseparable from war. D.°

Art. 47. Preached at Berwick. By Samuel Butler, M. A. Head Master of Shrewsbury School, and late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

We are here desired to recollect that, sanguinary as the late contest has been, no British blood has flowed on British ground; and that, in expressing our gratitude for the singular protection of Providence during the war, and for the restoration of Peace, we ought to remember that the continuance of God's mercies to us his *peculiar people* must depend on the use which we make of them. Though the

the preacher admits that Peace is better than war, he is so apprehensive of French imitation as to assert that, during the war, our moral and religious character was more secure that it is now. If this be true, the Peace is no blessing, and we should have persevered in cutting throats for the love of God.

Art. 48. Preached at Mile-End New Town, Stepney. By John Cottingham. 8vo. 1s. Gardner.

Unlike the preceding preacher, Mr. Cottingham contemplates war as incapable of producing any moral fruit. He asserts that it has a baneful influence on society, and that it withers every blossom of public virtue. Such a man can truly rejoice that Peace has returned to *Britain*, which he regards as *the Glory of all lands*.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have been obliged by a Correspondent, just returned from Paris, with some information which will probably be interesting to the Philosophical world. It has been resolved to institute a sort of Continuation of the Memoirs of the "*Academie des Sciences*," under the title of *Annales du Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle:* one of the leading objects of which undertaking is to explain, for the benefit of students, the immense collection of Natural History, &c. which this singularly extensive museum contains, and to develope the principles of true science. It is not intended to wait for such a collection of papers as would be necessary to constitute a volume, but to publish with greater dispatch in the form of numbers; and for this purpose, the Professors have agreed to meet once in a week, to communicate to each other the result of their observations and labours in their respective departments, and to decide on the papers which are to be given to the world. These Annals are to appear regularly on the 15th of every month, and the first number will be issued in the beginning of October next. The Professors of the *Museum*, who have engaged in this undertaking, are MM. *Hauy*, *Fourcroy*, *Brongniard*, *Desfontaines*, *Jussieu*, *Geoffroy*, *Lacépède*, *Lamarck*, *Portal*, *Mertrud*, *Thouin*, *Faujas*, *Vanspaendonck*, and *Cuvier*.

Our modest Correspondent at Dolgelly has, perhaps, no reason to fear that his work will excite our 'indignation:' but, at any rate, he may depend on our not setting that "mark on its forehead" which he deprecates.

We have not yet seen "*the Parents' Friend.*"

Dr. Dickson's letter is received, but it arrived too late in the month for present attention.

The APPENDIX to Vol. XXXVIII. of the MONTHLY REVIEW is published with this Number.

Errors, p. 63. & 105